

**Measuring the impact of research outputs from the Institute for Poverty,
Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS) on the scholarly domain and in
social media, 1995-2015.**

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A minor dissertation submitted in *partial fulfillment* of the requirements for the
award of the degree of Master of Library and Information Studies

Faculty of the Humanities

University of Cape Town

2017

COMPULSORY DECLARATION

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere thanks go to the following people, without their help I would not have succeeded in finishing this dissertation:

My supervisors, Associate Professor Mary Nassimbeni and Michelle Kahn, for ongoing support and encouragement.

The NRF that generously assisted me with funding for the study.

Anastashia Naidoo, UWC LIS student assistant, who patiently and meticulously found and recorded a lot of the data.

Sarah Goodier, and others from CILT, who were helpful and encouraging regarding my foray into altmetrics.

Altmetric.com (especially Amy) who gave me permission to access their database and responded quickly with help when I needed it.

Jonathan Kaplan, for unending support and for determinedly protecting the space to make it possible for me to do this.

Many friends for words of wisdom and encouragement, and especially Rebecca Pointer, Jane Henshall, Liz Sparg, Bridget Krone and Jenny Kerchhoff for reading and editing various parts of the document.

PLAAS, for financial support and for researchers that participated in this study.

ABSTRACT

Scholarly communication has changed with the growth in technology, particularly the internet and the social web. The changes include a broader definition of the scholarly communication format, and the role of social media in the research process, amongst others. This study sought to record the body of work that PLAAS had produced over a 20-year period (1995 to 2015) and to measure its visibility and impact through bibliometrics and altmetrics. It was the first time that such a study had been done. The Web of Science Citation Index and Scopus are two commercial databases that have recently been joined by Google Scholar, the first open database of scholarly items with citation counts based on the entire contents of the World Wide Web. Scopus and Google Scholar were used in this study.

Methods used in the study included the compilation of a full bibliographic record of the outputs during that period. Citation analysis and publication counts were conducted, per author, within Scopus and Google Scholar. Altmetric analysis was achieved with the Altmetric Explorer database, and by studying three PLAAS grey literature outputs in more depth for altmetric indicators. The last method used was a small survey based on an online multiple-choice questionnaire of researchers at PLAAS to investigate their attitudes to a selection of the social media platforms commonly used by scholars.

The full list of outputs, once compiled, showed a composition of 54% grey literature published by PLAAS and 46% journal articles and monographs. The results showed that bibliometrics, as a purely quantitative indicator, can be useful in measuring the impact of a body of work on the scholarly domain and in this study indicated high publication and citation rates. The authors of the highest number of PLAAS outputs and with the highest citation counts and *h*-indices, were found to be the same throughout the study. These authors are closely associated with the Institute and have contributed to the good academic reputation of its research. The study was inconclusive with regard to the impact on social media platforms as none of the grey literature from PLAAS had a unique identifier which made it difficult to track; in addition, the use of social media by the Institute and its researchers was intermittent and uneven in covering all the PLAAS-published outputs that were produced.

Key recommendations for PLAAS to improve the visibility and impact of their outputs in scholarly and social contexts were to use unique identifiers, to track their social media activity and to keep author profiles up to date. Further use and application of the research design in other research units and departments at UWC will generate results that are useful to research management at UWC.

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List of acronyms and abbreviations

| | |
|--------|--|
| AAS | Altmetric Attention Score |
| ACRL | Association of College and Research Libraries |
| ARL | Association of Research Libraries |
| CILT | Centre for Innovation in Learning and Teaching |
| DOI | Digital Object Identifier |
| GS | Google Scholar |
| HEFCE | Higher Education Funding Council for England |
| JIF | Journal Impact Factor |
| NGO | Non-governmental organisation |
| NRF | National Research Foundation (South Africa) |
| OA | Open Access |
| ORCID | Open Researcher and Contributor ID |
| PLAAS | Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies |
| PoP | Publish or Perish (software) |
| SARCHI | South African Research Chairs Initiative |
| SOG | School of Government |
| UCT | University of Cape Town |
| UWC | University of the Western Cape |
| WoS | Web of Science |

CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Scholarly communication has existed for centuries, beginning with the first scientific journal, *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*, published in 1665. Academic journals were thus closely associated with scholarly communication and, apart from the addition of monographs and conference proceedings, this continued relatively unchanged until recently. Scholarly communication is defined by C. Borgman (2000:13) as “the study of how scholars in any field (e.g. physical, biological, social and behavioural sciences, humanities, technology) use and disseminate information through formal and informal channels”. There are many definitions of scholarly communication but Borgman’s is preferred in this study. Recent progress in technology, including shifts to make information available openly and freely on the internet, is changing the practice of scholarly communication and broadening the original definition (Gunelius, 2015), which will be further investigated in the study.

Bibliometric analysis is one quantitative method for assessing research outputs around which scholarly communication functions. There are other approaches, like peer review, that is qualitative and equally important, but will not be studied here. Bibliometrics has a history going back to the early twentieth century and it was most notably Pritchard (1969:349) who gave it the name “bibliometrics”. Haustein and Larivière (2015:1), amongst others, cite Pritchard’s definition as a way “to shed light on the processes of written communication and of the nature and course of development of a discipline (in so far as this is displayed through written communication), by means of counting and analyzing the various facets of written communication”. Scientometrics was another name used for this approach and citation counts were the first indicators of scholarly impact developed in the mid-20th century. Initially, print indices to journals in various fields were produced and later citation indices, such as the Journal Citation Reports, published in 1975. More and more scholars found the concept of tracing their work and that of others highly desirable, and actively pursued such tools. The Science Citation Index, initiated by Eugene Garfield in the 1960s, had made finding journal articles and authors easier

than before, more so when the electronic versions were developed (Roemer & Borchardt, 2015: 28).

Another quantitative method of measuring research impact is altmetrics, defined by Priem, Groth and Taraborelli (2012:1) as "the study and use of scholarly impact measures based on activity in online tools and environments". These new metrics have emerged out of the social web and social media, and they track scholarly communication in that context rather than in the purely scholarly one of citation indices. The concept of altmetrics was designed to move away from the measurement of scientific success based only on the number of journal articles published and citations received, by considering a wider range of research outputs and metrics (Lapinski, Piwowar & Priem, 2013:292). The term "altmetrics" was first introduced in a tweet in 2010 (Priem, 2010), although tracking scholars and their documents on the web was introduced years before that. Thelwell et al. (2013:2) claimed that "non-citation-based metrics" have been used for some time and are not "novel" and others, such as Cronin (1997:1326) writing in 1997 raised awareness of the potential of the social web to provide a "transparent" way of evaluating scientists beyond citations.

This study records the scholarly outputs of the Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS) since its inception in 1995, and using bibliometrics and altmetrics, describes the level of visibility and impact that these outputs received from 1995 until 2015.

1.2 Background to the study

In order to understand the background to this study, this section will describe the Institute's history and secondly, the nature of scholarly communication at PLAAS.

1.2.1 Institute for Poverty Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS)

PLAAS, originally called the Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies, celebrated 20 years of existence in 2015, having been initiated by Professor Ben Cousins and a funding grant from the Ford Foundation in 1995 (PLAAS, 2005:1). This was shortly after the first democratic election in South Africa in 1994 and the main purpose of the Programme was to "train black applied social scientists in the land and agrarian

reform sector, and to engage in policy-relevant research” (PLAAS, 2005:1). PLAAS worked with the newly elected South African government by running training workshops with government departments and officials and acting as “consultants in roles ranging from facilitators of programmes, (such as policy workshops) to reviewers, and evaluators of projects” (Aliba, 2008:17). The Programme was placed within the University of the Western Cape (UWC) with the aim of conducting high quality “critical research” to enable the new government in South Africa to develop policy and practice around issues of land and its redistribution, as well as poverty and agrarian reform (PLAAS, n.d.).

The disciplinary remit of PLAAS includes research into land rights, poverty and natural resources management (such as water) which is conducted in a broad social sciences framework. The research projects (lasting two to three years) focus on understanding the social, economic and political dynamics in the areas of research. (PLAAS, 2005:3). According to Professor Cousins in the early years of PLAAS’s existence,

“A primary goal at PLAAS remains, therefore, the strengthening of capacity for high quality applied social science research in the land reform, rural development and natural resource management sectors, and making strong policy recommendations on the basis of analytically sound and empirically informed research” (PLAAS, 2000:1).

In 2009, PLAAS officially became an Institute of the university, and currently goes by the name, Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies. This was largely as a result of the university taking steps to redefine itself as a research-based institution, setting out an Institutional Operating Plan that emphasised the importance of socially relevant research, and identifying PLAAS as an important component of its strategy (PLAAS, 2012:37). Publishing and communicating research findings is an explicit aim of the Institute as expressed by Cousins, “Research findings and policy recommendations need to be communicated to make an impact, and PLAAS devotes considerable resources to its publishing programme” (PLAAS, 2000:1).

“The Institutional Operating Plan: 2010-2014” of UWC and particularly “The research policy of the University of the Western Cape” contained within it, refer to a changing higher education environment. It states that the role of the university is to encourage academic staff members to publish more in high impact journals and asserts that scholarly publication in research journals remains the primary route for promoting UWC research within a disciplinary community.

“The University needs to introduce as part of the incentive scheme a mechanism that will encourage staff members to publish more in high impact journals in their respective disciplines, thereby applying and qualifying for a valid NRF-rating” (University of the Western Cape, 2009:5).

This policy supports the National Research Foundation (NRF) rating and evaluation system that is “despite its shortcomings ... the only available mechanism for international peer evaluation of one’s standing as a researcher” (UWC, 2009:5). The incentive and reward scheme is clearly devised by this university (and most others in South Africa) to uphold the traditional style of scholarly communication within the constraints of a broader national research strategy as set out by the NRF.

The PLAAS Resource Centre, which houses a collection of books, journals and unpublished material relating to the areas of PLAAS’s focus, was established in the early 2000s. The management of the Resource Centre and the production of PLAAS-published research outputs were the responsibility of a PLAAS librarian in the early years. In 2010 with the post of librarian vacant, and a new project funded by Atlantic Philanthropies, a separate Information and Communications Officer position was created, in addition to a Policy Dialogue Officer (PLAAS, 2012). These staff members “helped PLAAS move much more decisively into using the internet and social media” (PLAAS, 2012:29). One of the aims of the organisation at this time was to engage “on quality research, share [our] work with others in the field and, where appropriate, impact on policy” (PLAAS, 2012:33).

Since the founding of the organisation in 1995, the total body of work of PLAAS has not been quantitatively measured to investigate impact, and this study will endeavour to do that, with the use of the methods and tools of bibliometrics and altmetrics.

1.2.2 Scholarly communication at PLAAS

Scholarly communication behaviour at PLAAS has followed the broad trends in the academy and has changed in the 20 years of PLAAS's existence. Articles in print journals, books and book chapters as well as conference proceedings and other traditional forms of scholarly communication were produced by PLAAS researchers. In addition to these scholarly outputs, in the early years, PLAAS produced a consistent amount of "grey literature", including reports of research projects, evaluations for government and workshop material for training of government departments; this was followed later by policy briefs, occasional papers and other outputs (Pointer, personal communication 2017, March 03).

The recorded grey literature published by PLAAS consists mainly of the following formats: policy briefs, research reports, occasional papers, books, videos, working papers, annual reports, presentations and policy submissions. A newsletter called *Umhlaba Wethu* that aimed to inform government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) about key issues in land reform was first produced in 2004 (PLAAS, 2005:14). These publications were frequently the result of collaboration with other authors and institutions, and were generally not peer reviewed although they were often based on the same research from PLAAS which was published in scholarly formats.

Technology inevitably had a significant effect on scholarly communication everywhere, and PLAAS similarly felt the impact. PLAAS's publications from 1995 were printed and the print copies were distributed physically by mail but since approximately 2004, the publications were also sent as links via email and were made digitally available on the PLAAS website (with a CC-BY licence) to be used, downloaded and cited; a few blogs were posted from 2008 (PLAAS, n.d.), and from 2011, the PLAAS Information and Communications team started sharing research via Twitter and Facebook (PLAAS, 2012:29). Fewer print copies were disseminated, and some, as in the case of the working papers, were available only electronically. In 2013 YouTube, LinkedIn and GooglePlus, were used regularly to disseminate the information that emerged from, and related to, PLAAS's research. The

Communications and Information Officer initiated the use of social media in the research institute, and succeeded in building a Twitter following of 5 258 (in June 2016). Approximately two new blogs per month were posted on the PLAAS website in 2015, covering various aspects of current research (Pointer & Kerchhoff, 2016). Some of the PLAAS researchers also tweeted and used Facebook on an individual basis, primarily related to their own research.

1.3 Research problem

Figures and statistics of PLAAS outputs and achievements were produced for their 20th anniversary in 2015 and these provided a starting point for this study. According to these figures, 743 outputs for the period 1995-2015 were published which included 399 documents published by PLAAS or its partners, and 344 documents published by peer-reviewed journals or monograph publishers.

At the time of this study, PLAAS had no collated record of its research outputs nor of the views, downloads, citations, or other uses made of the outputs by individuals, organisations or policy makers outside of PLAAS. The lack of such a record limited the ability of the Institute to measure its impact and visibility and this study aimed to fill that gap in the scholarly communication of PLAAS.

1.4 Objectives of the study

This study investigates scholarly communication in PLAAS from its formation in 1995 until December 2015. The main objective of this study is to record in detail the corpus of PLAAS research outputs over the period 1995-2015 with a view to measure its impact in the scholarly and social contexts. The focus is on recording the different types of scholarly communication at PLAAS and measuring their visibility using available bibliometric and altmetric tools. The specific objectives are:

- a. To record the body of research outputs, both externally and internally published, for the period 1995-2015;
- b. To use bibliometric and altmetric analysis on the scholarly outputs to measure activity and visibility of the researchers at PLAAS; and
- c. To investigate the impact of the different outputs measured through bibliometrics and/or altmetrics.

1.5 Motivation for the study

Bibliometric analysis is an established field of study in librarianship and is accepted as a quantitative measure of scholarly impact, while the emerging area of altmetrics provides a different and complementary perception of impact from that of bibliometrics. Together these metrics cover scholarly and social (including policy-related) spaces and a combination of both these types of metrics, or a “basket of metrics” as described by the University of Waterloo Working Group on Bibliometrics in their “White Paper on bibliometrics” (2016: viii), is considered best for complete analysis of scholarly outputs.

PLAAS researchers produce a number of scholarly outputs that are published in peer reviewed journals and elsewhere, and they collaborate with many local, regional and international authors, but the Institute has no empirical report of how visible the research is. A bibliometric analysis can assist in providing the Institute with a quantitative measure of their visibility and impact. The metrics could also indicate to the Institute that changes in publication strategies might help to improve impact, as suggested by Pouris (2006:503) in her study.

The Institute engages with policy makers and the public by attending sessions in parliament, communicating in the news media, and publishing and disseminating a large amount of grey literature intended for that audience, amongst other activities. This grey material is not indexed in databases such as Scopus and Web of Science (WoS) (although Google Scholar [GS] does include some) and is therefore not usually included in a bibliometric analysis. Altmetrics could assist to measure how much attention is being given to all PLAAS outputs, either complementing bibliometrics if available, or providing the only indicators, and thereby providing insight into whether more could be done to promote them on social media.

In addition, as a donor funded institute reliant largely on externally sourced funds, PLAAS has continually to argue for its relevance to current or potential donors. A report with indicators (bibliometric and altmetric) showing visibility and impact of research outputs could be beneficial when reporting to donors or applying for funding.

1.6 Scope and limitations of the study

Included in the study is a list of all the publications, those formally published in peer-reviewed journals and monographs as well as those published by PLAAS. Citation analyses of predominantly journal and monograph literature that is available in the citation indices, Scopus and GS, form another part of the study. Lastly, altmetric indicators that are available for a sample of the outputs from PLAAS are investigated and used to analyse each document in the sample.

The altmetric analysis of the grey literature of PLAAS was limited in covering the body of research outputs as altmetrics are article-level metrics. It was not possible to calculate a composite count per author from their outputs as citation analysis does. Altmetric results cannot therefore be compared directly to bibliometric results. After consulting the literature and experts in altmetrics, it was decided that this study will select a sample of the grey material for further investigation.

The survey of PLAAS authors was conducted with those employed at PLAAS in 2016, at the time of the study (12), and not all the authors who produced outputs between 1995 and 2015 (33).

1.7 Structure of the report

The report on this research has the following structure. The Introduction comprises an explanation of the research problem, the background, the objectives of this research, the limitations and the motivation for the study. Chapter Two reviews existing literature on the following: scholarly communication, social media in research, the open movement, and the measurement of research impact using bibliometrics and altmetrics. Chapter Three describes the research design, the methodology and the data collection. Chapter Four presents the results, any trends are noted and their relevance discussed. This is followed by the Conclusion, where recommendations based on the findings are presented. The final two sections are a reference list and appendices.

1.8 Conclusion

Scholarly communication is changing as technology develops and brings new ways in which to communicate; whether it is a research report or a journal article, or whether it is immediate online discussion through social media. PLAAS as a research institute is not immune to these changes and, in fact, embraced the use of social media in its communication of research early on. This study is an attempt to quantify the scholarly outputs of PLAAS by using bibliometric analysis and altmetric analysis where possible. The aim is to understand the impact that outputs from the Institute have had on both the scholarly context as well as the social and policy-oriented context. The literature review in Chapter Two will discuss the changes in scholarly communication and how metrics provide a perspective of visibility and impact of research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of three particular themes from the literature relevant to this research. There is currently a large body of literature covering many different aspects of bibliometrics and of scholarly communication, as well as a growing body of research on altmetrics, and this review focusses on these three themes. The first theme in the study is scholarly communication as a conceptual framework, incorporating the background to print publications and the recent move towards the electronic medium for scholarly outputs. Another theme reviewed is bibliometric analysis, which is described and explained, and critiques of the approach are presented. The last theme that is reviewed and critiqued is the recent and developing field of altmetrics.

2.2 Scholarly Communication

Before considering bibliometrics and altmetrics, it is necessary to understand scholarly communication and the link between them. There is agreement in the literature that scholarly communication was established with the first scholarly journal, *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*, published in print in 1665. The journal, and more specifically the journal article, has been the primary unit of communication since then, although the number of journals and articles has increased enormously since the 17th century (Priem & Hemminger, 2010; Haustein et al., 2015).

Specialised peer-reviewed monographs are another traditional form of scholarly publication, particularly in the social sciences and humanities. These have also been seen as valued means of communicating research and ideas to others in the scholarly community (Czerniewicz, 2013:2). However, the “current economic challenges facing scholarly monograph publishers, particularly university presses, are an aspect of the growing crisis” (ACRL Scholarly Communications Committee, 2003) in scholarly communication and publication, according to the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL).

Scholarly communication has many definitions and descriptions in the literature, such as Osburn (1989:277) who contended, almost 30 years ago, that scholarly communication was a “system”. He explained that “[m]ajor components of the scholarly communication system are the scholars and scientists who initiate communication, publishers, librarians, and the scholars and scientists who receive that communication”. Cullen and Chawner, (2011:461) regarded scholarly communication as a “pattern of creation, organization and dissemination [that] varies from discipline to discipline and may involve monograph as well as journal publication” and they added that it has been “endorsed by the academic community”. Borgman (2000:11) viewed scholarly communication as a system that has particular relationships between the various components and sub-systems within it, stating that the study of scholarly communication “includes the growth of scholarly communication, the relationships among research areas and disciplines, the information needs and uses of individual user groups and the relationships among formal and informal methods of communication”. Writing later, Haustein, Sugimoto and Larivière (2015) expressed the view that social media impacts scholarly communication and that “after decades of studying scholarly communication almost exclusively with papers and citations, scholars now have access to new sources of evidence”.

Since the 1970s, interest and research in scholarly communication increased (Liu, 2003:890; Borgman 1990; Paisley, 1989) and at the same time the volume of journals and journal articles increased (Priem, Groth & Taraborelli, 2012). Haustein and Larivière (2015) believe that it was the increasing volume of outputs that gave rise to the creation of the Science Citation Index in the early 1960s, in order to manage this high volume. This in turn led to bibliometrics becoming “a method that could be massively applied to analyze patterns of scholarly communication and evaluate research output” (Haustein & Larivière, 2015).

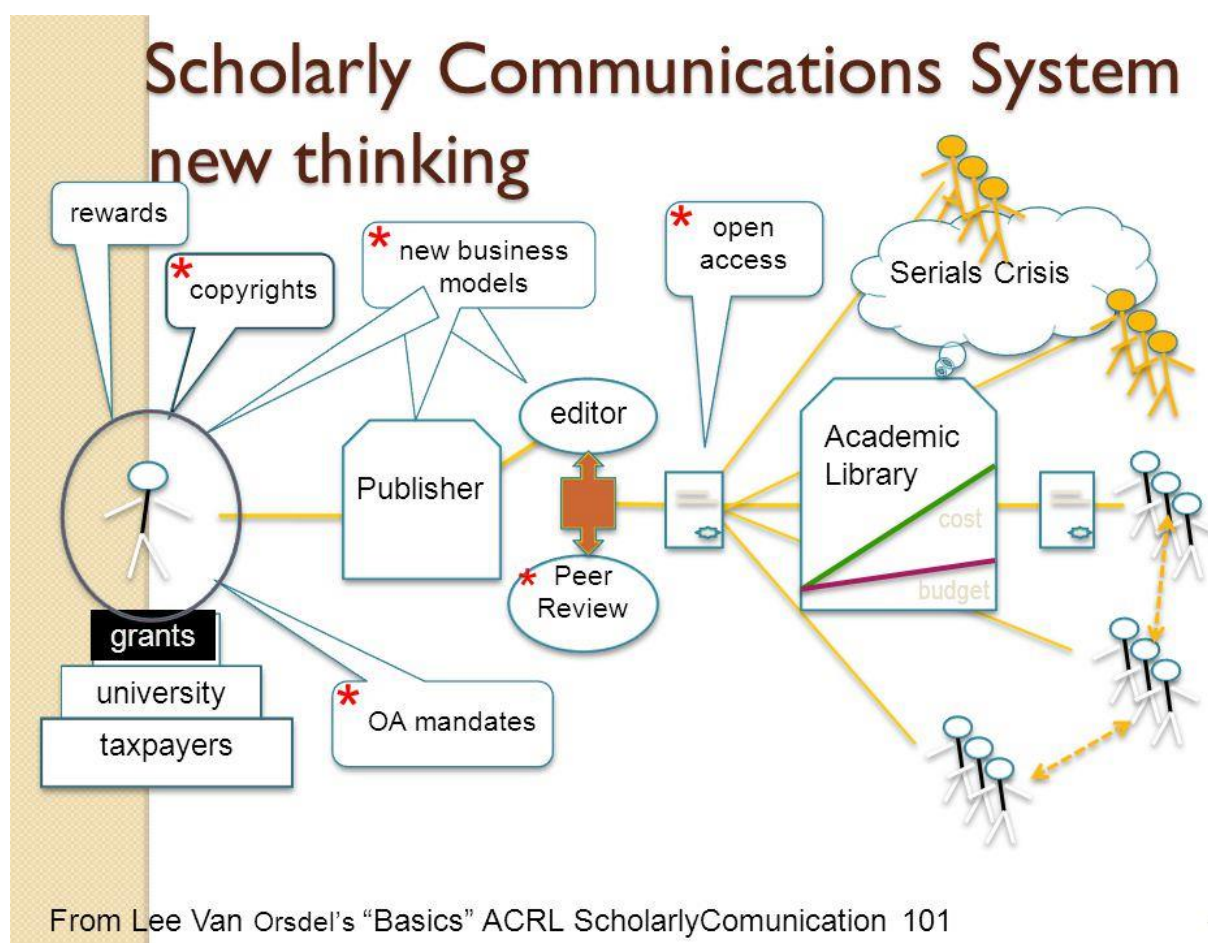
The literature concurs that scholarly communication has changed as a result of technology (Liu, 2003:889; Haustein et al. 2015; Barjak, 2006; Van de Sompel, 2004; Maron & Smith, 2008; Czerniewicz, 2013; Borgman & Furner, 2002). Since the introduction of the internet and particularly the rise of the social web (also called Web 2.0), behaviour around publication and dissemination of research outputs have

shifted from being the domain of formal publishers to being available to the researcher herself (Barjak, 2006:1355; Czerniewicz et al., 2014). Some authors hold that technology has “disrupted scholarly communication” (van Orsdel & Shreeves, 2010) and that it “is disrupting scholarly research and communications with trends like the increased use of social recommendations and circumvention of traditional publishers” (Gunelius, 2015).

An example of the changing environment is that scholars can now communicate around a piece of research immediately without having to wait for a publisher to publish an article. Social media platforms and tools such as blogs, micro-blogging (Twitter), repositories (either institutional or by discipline), discussion forums, online reference groups like Mendeley and Zotero, and scholarly social networks like Researchgate.edu or Academia.org allow this ease and speed in communication (Priem, Piwowar, & Hemminger, 2012; Czerniewicz, 2013:5).

A 2003 definition of scholarly communication provided by the ACRL is “the system through which research and other scholarly writings are created, evaluated for quality, disseminated to the scholarly community, and preserved for future use”. A few years later this concept was endorsed and updated by van Orsdel and Shreeves (2010) in the diagram/flow chart of scholarly communication (Figure 1) that was presented to the Scholarly Communications 101 Workshop of the ACRL National Conference. They explained how the traditional research life cycle (comprising the stages of creation, publication, dissemination, reformulation) had become economically unsustainable (the “serials crisis”) and scholars were demanding their intellectual property rights while at the same time the system was being disrupted by technologies of the internet and the open movement. The role of the library, they claimed, was potentially much greater than in the traditional model of scholarly communication.

Figure 1. Scopus total number of citations for PLAAS per year



Borgman and Furner (2002) look at human behaviour and whether it has changed as a result of technology. They, and others, comment on one noticeable development which is the increase in authors' collaboration with each other, the internet being one of the primary reasons for this (Liu, 2003:892; Barjak, 2006:1353). It is now easier and faster to connect across the globe following the development of email and other communication technologies, including social media.

Furthermore, one of the significant changes noted in the literature is that a variety of output types are produced, over and above the traditional journal article and monograph. The printed article, in linear format and usually published by an external entity, remained the dominant medium of scholarly communication for centuries but the establishment of a networked and digital environment has now allowed a variety of different formats and publication models to become part of the scholarly output of many scholars. Van de Sompel et al. (2004) argue for a wider view of the "unit" of

scholarly communication as technology allows for greater variety, flexibility and speed in publication. Van de Sompel et al. (2004) argue that a range of other formats should form part of scholarly communication, including data sets, multimedia documents, files and software. Maron and Smith (2008) investigate the adaption of scholarly communication to digital and networked environments and name eight “digital scholarly formats” as follows:

- E-journals
- Reviews
- Preprints and working papers
- Encyclopaedias, dictionaries, and annotated content
- Data
- Blogs
- Discussion forums
- Professional and scholarly hubs (Maron & Smith, 2008:7).

Alongside the vast changes brought about by technology, the open movement¹ is considered to have had a major effect on scholarly communication practices (Cullen & Chawner, 2011; Czerniewicz, 2013:6; Raju, Adam & Powell, 2015; Teferra, 2004). Open access publishing is of particular concern to this study. In open access publications, scholars are taking control of their own work and publishing online. The move towards open access began early in the 21st century and resulted in more and more scholarly work being freely available on the internet. This means it is free of cost to the user and also free of many restrictions (Fitzpatrick, 2012:350). The Budapest Open Access Initiative in 2002 and the Berlin Declaration on Open Access to Knowledge in 2010 are two formal agreements that many scholars and institutions around the world signed.

¹ The open movement is defined by the Open Data Handbook (n.d.) as a movement that “seeks to work towards solutions of many of the world’s most pressing problems in a spirit of transparency, collaboration, re-use and free access. It encompasses open data, open government, open development, open science and much more.”

An increasing number of open access journals are being established and in addition to publishing in open access journals, scholarly outputs are deposited in institutional or subject repositories. This so-called “green” open access route allows for a variety of formats to be held in a repository, including journal articles in pre-print stage, data sets, research reports and more, with no costs involved.

Authors agree that digital and networked environments encourage the production of results that enable a two-way engagement as scholars engage online through social media and network sites (Moed & Halevi, 2015:1989; Onyancha, 2015:9; Tattersall, 2016:54). When a publication or other output is available on an open access platform there is far wider access and readership, provided readers have access to the internet. This affects the visibility of the publication or output, as well as increasing the chances of greater impact.

UWC approved an open access policy in 2014 after signing the *Berlin Declaration on Open Access to Knowledge in the Sciences and Humanities* in October 2013. The policy states that “as a signatory to the Declaration, UWC has committed itself to adopting and promoting an “open access paradigm” (UWC, 2014) with regard to the management and dissemination of the knowledge it produces. The university also has an institutional repository in which a few of the outputs of PLAAS researchers have been placed. The policy “describes the parameters and processes for the effective functioning of UWC’s Research Repository as the primary institutional mechanism for promoting and managing open access” (UWC, 2014). The policy clearly states that the onus on depositing documents lies with the UWC researchers, “as creators of original scholarly research” (UWC, 2014). The total number of items that are currently in the UWC repository is 1,814 (Snyders, personal communication 2017, February 2017).

Many authors observe that change has come about in part as a result of problems and dissatisfaction within the old scholarly communication system. Some of these problems and concerns, which resulted in this change of direction to open access via the technological advances, are identified by Van de Sompel et al. (2004) as the escalating costs of subscribing to journals, difficult copyright issues, and the length of time between results being available and the publication of those results. The

rewarding of scholars that is based largely on the publication of journal articles is stated as one of the fundamental problems in the current system (Gorman, 2008; Van de Sompel et al., 2004). The unaffordability for even the wealthiest universities and institutions to subscribe to all their required journal titles is one of the most significant causes for change. “The economic model has proved unsustainable” (van Orsdel & Shreeves, 2010), which means that the high prices set by publishers that have amalgamated a number of titles into one package, are too expensive for most institutions, especially those in the global south, including South Africa.

2.3 Metrics

Measuring impact and visibility of scholarly communication, commonly in the form of both bibliometrics and the newer altmetrics, are discussed in the literature at length, and this section reviews the details of both types of metric.

2.3.1 Bibliometrics

As scholarly communication transformed and evolved over time, so a need for new measures and methods of assessing authors and articles or monographs became apparent. In the mid-20th century, bibliographic control systems were introduced in the form of indices to journals in various fields and later citation indices, firstly in print format and then electronic.

Citation indices were not intended to be used for assessment purposes (Haustein & Lariviere, 2015). The creation of the Science Citation Index by Eugene Garfield in the 1960s, which made finding journal articles and authors easier, also subsequently made it possible, and increasingly popular, to analyse trends in scholarly communication and to evaluate the research output of individuals or institutions using this index and the method of citation analysis.

The method of measuring the impact of research called bibliometrics, was defined by Pritchard (1969) in 1969 as “the application of statistical and mathematical methods to books and other media of communication”. Pritchard is generally associated with the coining of the term “bibliometrics”, although similar practices to bibliometrics and citation analysis were used earlier in the twentieth century. Sometimes called “statistical bibliography’ (Haustein & Larivière, 2015), these were counts of scientific

outputs which were used to assess scholarly activity in a particular field. Basic citation counts were also done by Gross and Gross as early as 1927 (Haustein & Larivière, 2015).

Bibliometrics is a quantitative method for measuring or rating the impact of the work of an author or group of authors, or of the body of work in a particular field, and is used as an indicator of impact and prominence. There are different bibliometric tools including publication counts, citation analysis and the Journal Impact Factor (JIF)². “Bibliometrics offers a powerful set of methods and measures for studying the structure and process of scholarly communication” (Borgman & Furner, 2002). Haustein and Larivière (2015) noted that the citation index “gave rise to both the practical application of bibliometrics in research evaluation and information retrieval and theoretical and empirical research of citation analysis and bibliometric indicators”.

Two basic assumptions exist in bibliometrics. Firstly, the theory that (in sociological research as well as the sciences) “by counting papers, we obtain an indicator of research activity” (Haustein & Larivière, 2015). Secondly, Haustein and Larivière (2015) describe citation analysis (a specific bibliometric method) as a method “based on the assumption that a document referenced in a subsequent paper marks the intellectual influence of the cited document on the citing paper”. Olsgaard (1989), Rosas et al. (2011), Moed and Halevi (2015) concur with these assumptions, and Borgman and Furner (2002) claim that one could “use bibliometric methods in order to describe, explain, predict, and evaluate the communication behavior of scholars”. Rosas et al. (2011) also find that “evaluative bibliometrics uses advanced techniques to assess the impact of scholarly work in the context of other scientific work “. According to Galloway, Pease and Rauh (2013:337)

“Quantifying scholarly output via traditional citation metrics is the time-honored method to gauge academic success. The impact of a scholar’s work

² According to Thomson Reuters (2013), the Impact Factor “is a measure of the frequency with which the ‘average article’ in a journal has been cited in a particular year or period”. It is a controversial metric that will not be discussed in this study.

can be measured by evaluating several factors, including the number of peer reviewed publications, citations to these publications, and the influence of the publications.”

Many bibliometricians are concerned about the relationship between citations and quality of research and reiterate that high impact does not necessarily equate to high quality of a paper. Caution is expressed by Bornmann and Haunschild (2016:3), who question whether “impact of research might no longer be seen as a proxy for its quality, but in its original sense: the simple resonance in some sectors of society”.

The emergence of the social web and new technologies associated with it has challenged not only the journal (and monograph to a lesser extent) as the primary unit of scholarly communication but also citation indices as the principal assessment mechanisms (Priem & Hemminger 2010; Haustein et al., 2015). Citation indices were satisfactory for some time, but in online scholarly environments, “Citation–based metrics are slow and narrow in an increasingly fast and broad scholarly world” (Priem & Hemminger, 2010).

Bibliometrics is increasingly considered an imperfect method of measuring impact and a number of problems are raised in the literature. The following section describes a number of the limitations of bibliometric methods that are identified.

- i. **Disciplinary differences.** A number of sources in the literature caution that different disciplines have different measures in citation counts, impact factors and other indicators, and that when showing impact one cannot compare across disciplines as the standards are completely different. "Citation analysis consistently finds that 'discipline matters', and the nature and frequency of citation depends on the size and accepted practice in a scholar's research community" (Vaughan & Shaw, 2005:1077). Scopus and WoS have developed normalised scores for citation counts to represent a particular author or institution relative to others in the same discipline, Moed and Halevi (2015) and Galloway, Pease and Rauh (2013) concur with the need to normalise scores.

- ii. **Obliteration.** The problem of obliteration arises when a theory, idea or principle grows increasingly established in a field and is gradually absorbed into general understanding of that field of study. Although the creator is initially cited, s/he becomes lost or obliterated over time and citations cease (Moed & Halevi, 2015:1992).
- iii. **Self-citation.** Self-citation counts affect the total citation count and this can skew the results. Scopus has an option to view total citation counts without self-citations which is understood to be a fairer measure. This is because sometimes unscrupulous researchers resort to “inflating self-citation through editorials and readers’ comments on published articles” (Falagas & Alexiou, 2008).
- iv. **Journal Impact Factor (JIF).** According to Thomson Reuters (2013), the Impact Factor “is a measure of the frequency with which the ‘average article’ in a journal has been cited in a particular year or period”. There are several tools used to establish the prestige of journals, among which are the Thomson Reuters Journal Impact Factor, the Source Normalized Impact per Paper (SNIP), and SCImago Journal Rank (SJR). There is however, growing dissatisfaction with the emphasis placed on the JIF from universities and government research institutions globally.

One concern is the ease with which the JIF can be manipulated by authors or editors to inflate the metric (Falagas & Alexiou, 2008; Priem, 2012). The fundamental problem with the JIF is that it is an indicator for an entire journal and not for a particular article in that journal. The implication is that if the JIF is high then all articles in that journal have high impact and this is obviously not necessarily the case. Lundberg (2006) emphasises that “misuse of this indicator is in evaluating the impact of a researcher based on the journal’s impact factor”. Priem and Heminger (2010) agree that “the JIF has serious shortcomings”.

- v. **Gaming, i.e. manipulating the figures for greater benefit to the author.** Although this is not a practice that is commonly engaged in, there is a level of

“gaming the system” by both authors and editors of journals. Discussing the validity of bibliometric methods used, Furner (Cronin & Sugimoto, 2014:104) raises the moral aspect of using bibliometrics when the aim is to increase reward of authors or institutions. Impact factors, citation counts and other indicators can be manipulated to increase the level of an author’s overall score. Falagas and Alexiou (2008) provide a list of similar practices that occur with dubious editorial policy and caution against these.

- vi. **Grey literature** “such as technical reports, working papers, and white papers” (Galloway, Pease & Rauh, 2013) is not included in large commercial citation indices like the WoS and Scopus, resulting in many research outputs being left out of traditional bibliometric systems and analysis (Galloway, Pease & Rauh, 2013). Furthermore, Galloway, Pease and Rauh (2013) assert that the bibliometric methods used by these citation indices do not consider the full range of different forms that scholarship takes beyond formal journal articles.

A report called *The metric tide* published in 2015 by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) gives a detailed account of how bibliometrics can be misused or used irresponsibly. It cites, “(t)he most common approaches to measuring research quality involve bibliometric methods, notably weighted publication counts; and citation-based indicators, such as the JIF or *h*-index (Wilsdon et al., 2015).” Changing scholarly communication and metrics for measuring impact implies, according to Galloway, Pease and Rauh (2013:338), that traditional methods “are still important, including for promotion and tenure purposes, but they do not provide the full picture”.

The researcher has looked for similar studies that were completed for other research institutes and has found a number of studies that compare citation indices, such as a report by Tran and Aytac (2016) that quantifies the scholarly productivity, from 2000 to 2013, of eight education institutions in Long Island, New York using WoS and Scopus. Other comparisons of citation indices from South Africa that she has found are Onyancha and Ocholla (2009) who investigates GS as an alternative citation index to WoS and Scopus, and Adriaanse and Rensleigh (2012) who compares three citation resources (GS, Scopus and WoS) with one another to identify the

citation resource with the most representative South African scholarly environmental sciences citation coverage.

In other studies using bibliometrics, Pouris and Pouris (2008) report on the number of publications (and the number of patents) awarded to scientists in Africa and compare this to other parts of the world. Aleixandre-Benavent et al. (2012) have produced a paper “Bibliometric analysis of publications by South African viticulture and oenology research centres”, and Molatudi, Molotja and Pouris (2009) have published “A bibliometric study of bioinformatics research in South Africa” that compares South African bioinformatics outputs to those from Brazil, India and Australia.

A pertinent paper for this study has been published in 2017 by Rotich and Onyancha, “Trends and patterns of medical and health research at Moi University, Kenya, between 2002 and 2014: an informetrics study”. The paper analyses the research trends and patterns of the academic staff at a college based in a university in Kenya based on data found in GS.

2.3.2 Altmetrics

The disruption of scholarly communication on various levels and the problems with traditional bibliometrics have contributed to the evolution of a new set of methods and tools for measuring impact, which is called altmetrics or article level metrics. Altmetrics is defined by Priem, Groth and Taraborelli (2012) as “the study and use of scholarly impact measures based on activity in online tools and environments”. It is commonly known as alternative metrics and according to Galloway, Pease and Rauh (2013) “altmetrics, or alternative citation metrics, provide new methods to track scholarship across a wide range of media and platforms”.

The concept of altmetrics was created to provide “a filter” (Priem et al., 2010) and to consider a more diverse range of research outputs and metrics (Lapinski, Piwowski & Priem, 2013) than those offered by traditional bibliometrics. Although the term altmetrics was first mentioned in a tweet in 2010 (Priem, 2010), the idea of tracking scholars and their documents on the web, to measure “impact” of science in a broader manner than citations, was introduced years before, largely in the context of

webometrics (Almind & Ingwersen, 1997; Thelwall et al., 2013; Haustein, Sugimoto & Larivière, 2015). Webometrics is described by Priem and Hemminger (2010) as “the analysis of Web citations and of article usage data”.

The internet and the social web have challenged and changed traditional evaluation methods as well as the “quasi-monopolistic status of the journal as the main form of scholarly communication” (Haustein, Sugimoto & Larivière, 2015). Article-level metrics have presented themselves as an alternative to many journal based metrics that were previously associated with imprecise bibliometric methods of evaluation.

Some literature shows hostility to the new concept of altmetrics. Beall (2013) comments in his blog that “[a]rticle-level metrics reflect a naïve view of the scholarly publishing world”, primarily because it is a “system that is prone to gaming, corruption, and lack of transparency”. Colquhoun and Plested (2014) argue that all metrics are a problem because they cannot show quality of research but that altmetrics were “superficial” and the worst method yet of measuring impact of research. Barnes (2015:129) has published a paper expressing concern with the assertion from a number of studies that there is sufficient correlation between altmetrics and future citation counts, to make altmetrics a metric of research impact, stating that “altmetrics are an extremely imperfect tool for predicting article performance in terms of future citations”.

Priem, Groth and Taraborelli (2012:1) suggest that altmetrics is the study and use of scholarly impact measures based on activity online: “altmetrics is in most cases a subset of both scientometrics and webometrics; it is a subset of the latter in that it focuses more narrowly on scholarly influence as measured in online tools and environments”.

Categories of altmetrics were found in many sources, but the categories differ from one source to another. Usage, view and download statistics are generally viewed as one type of metric, while activity in social media spaces around scholarly content is measured by another set of indicators (Sugimoto, 2015). Homberg (2015) suggests that altmetrics has many forms, “all of which can represent different aspects of the online activity or of the different levels of impact that various research products have

made on different audiences". In this study, the following four broad categories are used, based on the literature.

- i. **Usage and download data for each article (also called webometrics).** These metrics emerged with the rise of social networks on the internet as well as greater communication and interactivity on the web. Priem and Hemminger (2010) explain that "[t]he migration of academic literature to the Web allows measures of views or downloads for most articles; instead of measuring an article's impact on authors (who may or may not cite it), usage data supports measurement of impact on readers".
- ii. **Networking and referencing sites.** Mendeley, Zotero and CiteULike are examples of referencing sites that also allow sharing of lists of references with other scholars. Researchgate.org and Academia.edu are the best known proprietary, but free of charge, academic networking sites where researchers post their outputs, sometimes for sharing depending on copyright issues. The social networking sites Facebook, LinkedIn and GooglePlus are also used for sharing links to articles or documents themselves, as well as developing a perception of the response from readers, both scholars and the general public, to these posts.
- iii. **Micro-blogging (Twitter) and blogs.** These platforms provide for discussion and comments by an author and other scholars who are in the same field as the author. Tweets and blogs are a means of increasing a scholar's profile and this has effect on both the scholarly as well as the social and policy environments. Blogs are generally written in less academic language than a formal journal article but are based on the same research and can convey the same message or a part of that message.
- iv. **Altmetrics (aggregated scores).** There are three main commercial sites that provide aggregated scores for subscribers. Altmetric.com (from here on referred to as Altmetric) has what it calls an Altmetric Attention Score (AAS); Plum Analytics and ImpactStory have similar indicators, and these are calculated by algorithms within the software that combine various indicators

and produce a single metric. Citation counts are usually included in the final score (Roemer & Borchardt, 2014).

Academics have always shared bibliographies and other lists of print publications, so reference managers like Zotero and Mendeley simply do the same thing electronically and online. Similarly, Twitter and blogs which contain comment space emulate informal conversations at conferences and other fora, which feed into scholarly production. In other words, as Priem, Piwowar and Hemminger (2012) note, “these tools do not *create* new types of scholarly practice so much as they *facilitate* existing practice”.

Advantages of altmetrics specified by Priem, Piwowar and Hemminger (2012) include the immediacy and speed of impact and indicators of impact. In addition, many of the platforms are free of cost (some use open source software) such as GS, Twitter, basic versions of Mendeley and Zotero (Galloway et al., 2013). Another advantage described by Van de Sompel et al. (2004) and Bornmann (2015:1134), is the more diverse range of outputs included in altmetric analysis is not only the traditional journal article and monograph, but includes blogs, data sets, research reports, technical reports, amongst others.

Priem, Piwowar and Hemminger (2012) and Galloway et al. (2013) raise limitations to these metrics. Misuse, manipulation and gaming, present in any metrics, are one concern; altmetrics are also considered too new to be used for evaluations with potential consequences of tenure or promotion. As with bibliometrics, altmetrics are dependent on accurate records and data of research outputs in various indices (Galloway et al, 2013) and if these are problematic then so are the indicators of impact.

Although most of the literature emphasises that altmetrics will not replace bibliometrics (Priem, Piwowar & Hemminger, 2012; Haustein, Sugimoto & Larivière, 2015; Bornmann, 2014), it is apparent that these new spaces on the internet and in social media have opened up an area of communication (both scholarly and social) that was previously not even there to be measured. Galloway, Pease and Rauh note that “altmetrics, while still developing, can provide a more robust picture of scholarly

influence” (2013). Many studies were found that investigated whether altmetrics and bibliometrics correlate and can predict citation counts early such as one by Costas, Zahedi & Wouters (2015). Some studies concluded that there were “moderate correlations between Mendeley and WoS citation” for predictors of citation counts and others concluded the opposite, that it is “doubtful whether altmetrics can predict future citations with sufficient accuracy to be useful in all but a small number of cases”. (Barnes, 2015:124). Most authors concur with Priem, Piwowar and Hemminger (2012) that altmetric indicators do not however appear to duplicate citation counts particularly and are rather considered supplementary indicators as they provide a different picture of impact.

Peer review is presented as an important qualitative evaluation tool that should be used in conjunction with metrics of all kinds (Maron & Smith, 2008:8). Moed and Halevi (2015:1990) comment that good research assessment relies on an “intelligent combination of metrics and peer review”. Altmetrics and bibliometrics are seen as complementary quantitative measures (Vaughan & Shaw, 2005:1081), and a combination of all (qualitative and quantitative) instruments to analyse the impact of scholarly outputs is viewed as the best approach (Moed & Halevi 2015:1990).

The definition and understanding of altmetrics is not yet fixed and it is a broad and varied term according to different technologies and platforms (Haustein, Sugimoto & Larivière, 2015). In their “Altmetrics manifesto”, the authors present reasons for new filters to manage large quantities of scholarly outputs and outline the role that altmetrics could play in reflecting impact of research (Priem et al., 2010). An attempt to standardise these metrics is provided in a draft document published by the National Information Standards Organization (NISO) in April 2016, which defines altmetrics as follows.

“Altmetrics is a broad term that encapsulates the digital collection, creation, and use of multiple forms of assessment that are derived from activity and engagement among diverse stakeholders and scholarly outputs in the research ecosystem”.

2.4 Conclusion

It is evident from the literature that scholarly communication is changing as technology develops and that the use of bibliometrics is viewed as insufficient in analyzing impact in an environment that is connected via online channels and platforms and where the unit of scholarly output is evolving and broadening to include a range of different types. Altmetrics is a new, unstandardized concept and method of assessing impact that has the potential to assist the bibliometric methods of analysis in providing a broader perspective of visibility and impact in scholarly and social contexts. NISO sums up the nature of all metrics, commenting that “citations, usage, and altmetrics are all potentially important and potentially imperfect indicators of the values reflected by the term scholarly impact” (NISO, 2016:1).

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter of the study describes the research approach, design and methods that were used to meet the research objectives. The overall approach is quantitative, using bibliometric methods to gather empirical data on the research outputs of PLAAS. Creswell (2009:4) defines quantitative research as “a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables”. Furthermore, according to Creswell (2009:4), the variables in quantitative research are measurable, using instruments to produce and analyse numerical data. The measurable variables in this case were authors, publications and citations over a certain period of time.

The main objective of this study is to produce a bibliographic record of the corpus of PLAAS research over the period 1995-2015 and to describe its impact in scholarly and social contexts. The aim is to record the different types of scholarly communication at PLAAS and measure their visibility using bibliometric and altmetric analysis. The three research objectives are to:

- a. Record the body of research outputs, both externally and internally published, for the period 1995-2015;
- b. Use bibliometric and altmetric analysis on the scholarly outputs to measure visibility and status of the researchers at PLAAS; and
- c. Investigate the impact of the different outputs measured through bibliometrics and/or altmetrics.

3.2. Research approach and design

In order to meet these objectives, the methodology of this study includes recording the basic bibliographic details of each publication produced in the institution within that 20-year period in a composite list. A bibliometric and altmetric analysis is then performed on this core list of publications (or parts thereof). Using these results, and with two basic assumptions in mind, the visibility and the impact of the research outputs in scholarly communication is assessed.

The first assumption about bibliometrics is that a publications count is the quantification of an organisation's research productivity (Haustein & Larivière, 2015:3). This assumption is made explicit in one study by Pouris and Pouris (2008) on 'The state of science and technology in Africa (2000-2004)', where publication counts are the "scientometric indicators" used to indicate the state of research and development on the continent. The authors state that "in bibliometrics the number of publications in a field is considered as an indicator of research activity" (Pouris & Pouris, 2008:299).

The second assumption is that citation counts are a proxy for the quality and influence of a particular piece of research. High citation counts therefore indicate high quality and prestige for the article and the author. Haustein and Larivière (2015:3) explain citation counting as a method "based on the assumption that a document referenced in a subsequent paper marks the intellectual influence of the cited document on the citing paper".

Altmetrics, similarly, are metrics used broadly to measure use and visibility of scholarly outputs but the data comes from social media and other informal sources rather than from books and journals. Consequently these metrics have a broader audience of not only academics, but also the general public. The internet and the social web challenged traditional evaluation methods (Roemer & Borchardt, 2015:100), particularly the use of "citation indices as the primary assessment mechanisms" (Haustein, Sugimoto & Larivière, 2015).

The definition and understanding of altmetrics is not yet fixed and it is currently a broad and varied term, changing according to different technologies and platforms as well as over time (Haustein, Sugimoto & Larivière, 2015; Roemer & Borchardt, 2015:145). For the purposes of this study, however, it is assumed that altmetrics, like bibliometrics, track how much impact an article has had in the scholarly and social arena, and give an indication of the visibility of that article and author (Roemer & Borchardt, 2015:138).

A number of articles in the literature use bibliometric analysis to measure visibility and impact of scholarly outputs, and this study is based on a similar approach. Many

of the studies tended to compare different institutions, such as one that investigated publications from a range of academic institutions in South Africa (Pouris, 2003) and another that compared the scholarly productivity of Long Island educational institutions (Tran & Aytac, 2016). Others compared numbers of publications from Africa to publication counts from elsewhere in the world (Pouris & Pouris, 2008), and some analysed the number of articles published in a particular field, such as a paper on Ebola virus research that assessed the research being done in that field over a period of time (Pouris et al., 2016).

This study investigated one research institute, PLAAS, and its authors, describing their output and assessing their impact according to what is revealed by the bibliometric and altmetric analysis of these outputs during the specified time period. A paper on individual bibliometric assessment written by Gorraiz, Wieland and Gumpenberger from the University of Vienna (2016) was particularly pertinent to this study. It included an interview with researchers to explore different evaluation methods and tools, particularly in the social web (Gorraiz, Wieland & Gumpenberger, 2016). This provided the basis for the questionnaire about social media used in the study.

3.2.1 What constitutes scholarly communication at PLAAS?

Scholarly communication has a long history, beginning with the scientific societies and associations of the early 17th century that met to discuss members' theories and discoveries. This evolved later in the 17th century into the scholarly journal, a medium that was considered the ideal way to communicate with other scholars and share information and opinions (Osburn, 1989). After a lengthy period in which the journal was the dominant form of communication, there is currently a growing movement (coinciding with the development of technology) to extend the medium through which scholars communicate to include the online environment and not the peer-reviewed journal article only.

Moving away from the traditional medium of print journals and books to a digital one has led to debate about what constitutes a scholarly article. Many now argue that research shared (mostly online) with audiences in broad society, government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the so-called grey literature, is a form of

scholarly communication, despite not being a traditional form (Trotter et al., 2014:203-204). Van de Sompel et al. (2004) discuss “a new unit of communication” other than the journal article, and propose flexibility in the defining of this unit.

The open movement is contributing to a shift in the traditional understanding of scholarly communication, as access to all information becomes more widely available (Barjak, 2006). Czerniewicz (2013:6) assesses changes in scholarly communication in digital spaces and comments that these spaces have “seen the growth of new types of enhanced publications”.

PLAAS produced a relatively large amount (approximately half of its total research output) of grey literature, including research reports, policy briefs, working papers and occasional papers, during the period under review. This study argues that these publications are, in fact, part of PLAAS’s scholarly communication and should be included in publication and citation counts, as they contribute to the visibility and impact of the entire body of research outputs.

3.2.2 Bibliometric analysis

There is an established history of using statistical analysis of academic outputs to “monitor and assess the outputs of scientific systems” (Pouris 2003:425). Pritchard (1969) coined the term bibliometrics, which Roemer and Borchardt define as “a set of quantitative methods used to measure, track and analyse print-based scholarly literature” (2015:28). Recently, more emphasis has been placed on using many of these indicators in processes of rating, evaluating and promoting researchers, than was the original focus or intention of the metrics (Tran & Aytac, 2016; *Evaluation and rating: NRF facts and figures 2014*, 2014).

Bibliometrics were originally developed for print media before new digital technologies brought computers, the internet, mobile devices and other communication tools. Common bibliometric indicators include the number of publications, citation counts, *h*-index, and the JIF which is a measure of the average citations per article in a particular year or period and is allocated to the journal as a whole. In addition, there are a number of relatively new metrics such as Snowball metrics, eigen factor and others, that will not be explored in this study.

The *h*-index is a significant indicator developed in 2005 by a scientist by the name of Jorge E. Hirsch. He advocated the use of a new index for measuring the impact of a researcher calculated by counting the number of publications and then counting the number of citations. It was largely accepted as an acceptable way of measuring both quality and quantity although there was also some criticism of this metric (Jasco, 2008:785). Sutton (2014:2) points out three criticisms which are “being easily manipulated, for varying depending on the scope of the knowledge base from which citations are drawn, and for providing meaningful comparisons only within a particular field of study”.

3.2.3 *Altmetric analysis*

Altmetrics is the commonly used term for alternative metrics. According to Galloway, Pease and Rauh (2013), these indicators “provide new methods to track scholarship across a wide range of media and platforms”. Another description of altmetrics is that it is the study and use of scholarly impact measures based on activity in online tools and environments (Priem, Groth & Taraborelli, 2012:1).

There are two reasons for using altmetric analysis. Firstly, it can provide a measure for the impact of grey literature, which is not captured in the commercial databases. Secondly, the indicators for altmetrics demonstrate different areas of impact from traditional bibliometrics, for example, Facebook shares, tweets, or sharing in academic networks such as ResearchGate. Scopus has started to include altmetric indicators in some article records, but this is still limited to those traditional document types that are recognised and included by Scopus, such as monographs, journal articles and conference proceedings.

The AAS is an article-level indicator provided by proprietary software company Altmetric. It is an aggregation of various counts and analysis of data from citation indices, reference managers and social media activity, amongst others. Since this is a minor dissertation and referred to a relatively large corpus from PLAAS, it was decided to take a sample of PLAAS-published outputs and use the result of an altmetric analysis of this sample to demonstrate visibility and impact.

3.2.4 Quality vs quantity

One way of quantifying an organisation's scholarly productivity is by counting publications produced by that institution (Tran & Aytac, 2016; Pouris & Pouris, 2009). Another is citation analysis, where the basic premise is that if a paper or a scholar is cited more often than others that indicates that they are influential (Meho & Rogers, 2008). However, it is questionable whether a high number of citations necessarily mean the quality of a paper is high, and over the past few decades, according to Bornmann and Haunschild (2016), there has been increasing debate around this premise.

The University of Waterloo Working Group on Bibliometrics (2016:v) acknowledges that "some bibliometric measures may be used as a proxy for research quality or scholarship excellence", but it also cautions against using bibliometrics as the single indicator for "inter-departmental research activity comparisons" and continues with a recommendation that "[b]est practice is to work from a basket of measures" (The University of Waterloo Working Group on Bibliometrics, 2016:viii). Lundberg (2006) advised using a wide range of metrics rather than relying on just one to present a balanced view of impact. Furthermore, he cautioned that bibliometric assessment results should be viewed critically and their limitations understood.

It is clear that although there is debate and uncertainty about how much information can be determined from a citation count or *h*-index, in terms of quality of research, it can be accepted that they act as a proxy and if used with caution, and with other metrics, they contribute towards building a broad view of impact.

3.2.5 Citation Indexing Databases

Citation analysis is defined by Meho and Rogers (2008) as a powerful and popular method, used in the scholarly domain, to examine and map the intellectual impact of scientists, projects, journals, disciplines and nations. Analysis of this sort uses citation count data, usually gathered from citation indexing databases.

Citation counts in this study are based on results of author searches in Scopus and GS done in 2016. Both of these databases include citation counts and related bibliometrics. The only other database that does this is the WoS, formerly called the

Thomson Reuters Science Citation Indexes. Scopus and WoS are both subscription-based software products owned by commercial publishers. WoS was established in 1963 as a print-based citation index while Scopus is relatively new, having been established in 2004. Scopus currently has a wider range of journal titles in its database than WoS. At the time of writing, Scopus covered over 22,748 peer-reviewed journals, more than 558 book serials and 138,000 non-serial books (Elsevier, n.d.). Scopus also tends to have better coverage of the Social Sciences and the Humanities, including both journals and monographs. WoS figures were more difficult to establish and estimated numbers were provided by the company, indicating that it covers approximately 12,000 “high impact” journals and 2,000 books (Clarivate Analytics & Web of Science, n.d.).

Apart from some open access journal titles (which require Article Processing Charges [APCs]), neither of these databases includes any open access material such as self-archived outputs in institutional or subject repositories. This is a shortcoming in the current scholarly communication environment, as the University of Waterloo Working Group on Bibliometrics (2016:vi) points out: “[a]cademic disciplines produce a range of research outputs, and not all of these are indexed equally well by citation-tracking databases”.

Both Scopus and WoS focus primarily on publications in English, and they tend to favour the global north in terms of coverage, while countries and languages from the global south are less well covered (Tran & Aytac, 2016:20; Working Group on Bibliometrics, 2016:vi). Araùjo et al.’s paper, “Does the global south have altmetrics? Analyzing a Brazilian LIS journal” (2015:112) refers to altmetrics but can also be applied to other traditional metrics in that “a large amount of scientific output from the global south is not indexed in international databases such as WoS, PubMed, Scopus and others, [and this] prevents the majority of those journals (including Brazilians) from being included in citation services.”

GS is currently the only freely available database of scholarly documents that includes citations and h-indices for authors, and it has the following additional advantages over both Scopus and WoS. Because the source for GS search results is the entire World Wide Web, its coverage is higher than the other two indices that

rely on the journal titles in their databases. It also includes document types excluded by Scopus and WoS, such as patents, research reports, policy briefs, hardware or software artefacts and all self-archived and open access material. Furthermore, GS indexes publications in a greater range of languages and from a wider coverage of regions of the world, unlike Scopus and WoS.

Another advantage of GS is its wide disciplinary content. Both Scopus and WoS concentrate more on the natural and health sciences than on the social sciences, whereas GS does not have a disciplinary bias. “Both the Web of Science and the rival Scopus database do not do justice to the outputs of the Social Sciences and Humanities because they neglect to include books and other forms of communication” (Kahn, 2011:27).

Despite these advantages, GS has limitations. One that was apparent in this study is that it has a much higher number of errors, inconsistencies and duplicate records than either of the other indices, confirming a finding by Adriaanse and Rensleigh (2013) in their study. It also does not have a means of uniquely identifying an author (Scopus uses the Open Researcher and Contributor ID (ORCID), as well as its own identifier), which can lead to results in which more than one author with the same name is returned in an author search. Jacso (2008:788) compared the *h*-index in WoS, Scopus and GS almost 10 years ago and concluded that GS was an “excellent tool” for finding grey literature but not as good as the other citation indices in determining the *h*-index. In another study by Onyancha and Ocholla (2009:62), published soon after Jacso, the conclusion was drawn that GS is an option for comparative citation studies because it is freely available and therefore accessible by researchers in developing countries, but ideally should be used to supplement the information from other databases, and if not possible then should be used carefully and with a qualitative peer review.

In terms of altmetrics in citation indices, Scopus has a partnership with Altmetric, which supplies altmetrics for documents in the Scopus database where they are available, and these can be seen at article level in the database. WoS, at the time of writing, did not include altmetrics and neither does GS.

In this study, GS and Scopus were used, but not WoS, for three main reasons. Firstly, the scope of the databases' publication coverage was a high priority, as PLAAS places itself in the Social Sciences discipline, which is better covered by GS and Scopus. Secondly, PLAAS produces not only journal articles, but also books and policy briefs, among other document types, and GS has the best coverage of these types of document. Thirdly, coverage of the global south (as GS has) is appropriate for PLAAS publications, with the institute and its authors based in Africa. In addition to these reasons, GS was a preferred method of bibliometric analysis because all PLAAS researchers had an established GS profile before this study commenced.

The researcher used Publish or Perish (PoP) to establish the PLAAS authors' publications counts, citation counts and *h*-indices. PoP is an open-source programme developed by Harzing in 2007 that retrieves and analyses academic citations, with GS providing the raw data. A number of other metrics (not used in this study) are calculated in PoP in addition to the counts and *h*-index, such as average citations per paper, variations of the *h*-index and the age-weighted citation rate (Harzing, 2008).

Although each of the three main citation indices has a "different collection policy which affects both the publications covered and the number of citations to the publications" (Bar-Ilan, 2008), use of these two sources (GS and Scopus) was considered sufficient for presenting a broad sense of visibility and impact of PLAAS research publications in both scholarly and social contexts.

3.2.6 *Altmetrics software*

Since the growth of the social web in the early 2000s, a number of software options in the field of altmetrics have emerged, while others (such as Readermeter) have disappeared. Altmetrics is a swiftly moving area of focus, with products and tools changing all the time (Roemer & Borchardt, 2015:126).

Altmetric, ImpactStory and PlumX are probably the three best-known products available to gather altmetrics data across the internet. "ImpactStory builds metrics around individual researchers rather than single papers" (Weller, 2015:7) and is most

useful to individual researchers who would like to build up a profile of their altmetrics. ImpactStory is the only programme that is free to use. PlumX “offers article-level metrics for so-called artifacts, which include articles, audios, videos, book chapters, or clinical trials” (Peters et al., 2015:174). This study used Altmetric Explorer, which is a web-based application, and the aggregated AAS, to analyse a selection of documents.

This particular software was used because the company gave permission to access Altmetric Explorer for research purposes. Furthermore, Altmetric is currently the dominant product in the market and has partnered with traditional publishers, such as Nature and Wiley Journals (Roemer & Borchardt, 2015:135). Another reason for using Altmetric Explorer is that it fitted the needs of this study, which are to find altmetric indicators for a particular author’s publications.

3.2.7 Surveys

Research surveys, using a cross-sectional design, consist mainly of questionnaires (or interviews) to collect data at a particular point in time. The aim of the questionnaire is to collect data that is quantifiable and can be examined “to detect patterns of association” (Bryman & Bell, 2014:107).

This study used predominantly PLAAS data and citation indices to formulate lists and spreadsheets of data, the findings of which were used to reach its objectives. An additional research instrument, in the form of a short self-administered questionnaire, was also used. It was sent to the researchers at PLAAS in 2016 to understand how much they knew about and used the various online social media tools and platforms for sharing scholarly information, including Facebook, Twitter, Cite-U-Like, ResearchGate.net and others.

3.3 Data collection: publications lists

Three different products were used in this study for the empirical data collection of publication lists, namely Zotero, Scopus and GS. Zotero is a free open-source reference management software programme used within PLAAS to collate lists of outputs. For this study, it was used to make a “master” list of all PLAAS publications over the 20-year period.

3.3.1 Master list (Zotero)

The compilation of a core publications list, or bibliography, was required in order to establish the total number of outputs at PLAAS (Appendix D). This was a straightforward exercise, although it was time-consuming as accuracy was critical.

The core publications list was compiled using records that had been kept at PLAAS in the Zotero reference management system and cross-checking them against the PLAAS Publications and Order Form, which was an existing document listing all the main research outputs since PLAAS's inception. Included in the existing Zotero folders were publications such as journal articles, monographs and conference papers, as well as other document types such as parliamentary submissions or hearings, research reports, policy briefs and occasional papers. In addition, records were kept in categories that were not included in this study, namely television and radio appearances, news media items that referred to PLAAS, policy engagement presentations, seminars and blogs. It was decided that all research conference papers would be included, even though some papers were not contained in formal conference proceedings documents. The counts of conference papers were not however included in the scholarly outputs.

The 20-year time period was selected because the organisation was founded in 1995, while the 2015 cut-off date ensured that the full quota of publications in 2015 was recorded, with the counting exercise being carried out in 2016.

This original list had to be heavily edited, for instance missing information was added, the items were checked against other lists for accuracy, and duplicates and erroneous items were deleted. In the final master list, there are 33 PLAAS authors and 743 publications, with 97 publications authored by researchers based outside PLAAS. It must be noted that where there are co-authored papers by more than one PLAAS author, each of these authors has a record for that paper. This is the same policy that Scopus and GS follow when recording number of outputs and number of citations.

3.3.2 Scopus

In order to ascertain the number of publications indexed in Scopus as well as the citations count for each author in PLAAS, an author search was carried out in Scopus for each researcher that had been at PLAAS between 1995 and 2015 using their last name and initial. The search was limited to these date parameters for each researcher, then the lists were checked for accuracy and saved in Excel spreadsheets. It was noted that not all PLAAS authors were indexed by Scopus. Out of 33 in the master list, only 20 were found in Scopus.

Each author's list in Excel was then combined into one spreadsheet and analysed. The total number of publications found in Scopus by 20 PLAAS authors for the period 1995-2015 was 134. This figure was also broken down into number of publications per year, individual author, or type of document. Lastly, the *h*-indices as presented in GS and Scopus were recorded in an Excel spreadsheet, along with the number of citations.

3.3.3 Google Scholar

The study made use of a student assistant to collect all PLAAS author outputs found in GS. The task entailed carrying out an author search in GS using a full-name search, excluding patents and cited publications. The results for each author for the specified time period were then saved in an Excel spreadsheet.

At the time of this study, all PLAAS authors already had their own GS profile, so it was relatively easy to find these and to stipulate the date range for searching the results for each author. There were, however, quite a few errors in these results. For instance, erroneous records that occurred for publications by another author with the same name, then had to be checked against the master Zotero list. Those by the incorrect author then had to be deleted, as were the duplicate and nonsensical records.

A total of 32 authors and their publications were found indexed in GS within the specified time period. The total number of publications was 535. The complete list was saved as an Excel spreadsheet.

3.4 Citation counts and *h*-index

The Scopus and GS author results included citation counts where applicable. Both sets of results were exported into Excel spreadsheets with columns for author, title, year, document type and number of citations. Records that were found in both Scopus and GS were listed in one worksheet with a separate column for each different citation count. The records that were found only in one or the other citation index were listed separately.

The combined records occurring in both GS and in Scopus were analysed according to the number of citations, document type, publication year and author. A total of 102 publications were found in both Scopus and GS, with 1,686 citations in Scopus and 4,354 citations in GS.

Table 1. Total counts of publications and citations

| Source | Number of authors | Number of publications | Number of citations |
|----------------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| Zotero | 33 | 743 | n/a |
| Scopus | 20 | 134 | 1,906 |
| Google Scholar | 32 | 535 | 11,678 |

The *h*-index for each author was found for records in the Scopus database by searching for an author's publications within the 20-year period, and viewing his/her citation overview. The *h*-index is calculated by Scopus, based on the number of publications and citations that it has for each author in its database. Similarly for GS, the *h*-index is calculated using the number of publications and citations in a GS profile. Harzing's PoP programme was used to search for PLAAS authors' *h*-indices in GS.

3.5 Altmetric counts

Altmetric Explorer was used to collect available altmetrics. The search was conducted in January 2017, using each author's full name, and the date range from

01 January 1995 to 31 December 2015 was specified. A total of 46 items was retrieved in this search, most of them with AASs, although not all.

This method resulted in only journal article, book and book chapter document types being found. Since the intention in this study is to find out what metrics are available for other document types it was necessary to search for altmetrics on other publication types produced by PLAAS. It was decided to select three specific articles and their metrics for a granular article-level study, and the researcher performed a manual search in January 2017 in Google Analytics for the PLAAS web pages that had the highest number of views and downloads from 2012 (when the publications were uploaded) to 2015. Three PLAAS publications were discovered in a list of the 10 most downloaded web pages. These outputs, one policy brief, one working paper and one fact check, were therefore selected for further investigation. Applications Programme Interfaces (APIs) available on these pages were used to count Twitter and Facebook shares.

3.6 Survey

The survey employed a short online questionnaire as the research instrument. The questionnaire was based on that used by Gorraiz, Wieland and Gumpenberger (2016) in a study done at the University of Vienna, where individual researchers were evaluated using bibliometrics and altmetrics and both sets of indicators from were used extensively in that study to compile a profile of the reach and impact of an individual researcher. A copy of the questionnaire is attached in Appendix C.

In this study, PLAAS researchers were surveyed to discover their knowledge and use of social media in an academic environment. The decision was made to limit this study to only those authors who were employed at PLAAS at the time of doing the study. A self-administered, standardised questionnaire, comprising questions with structured response categories as well as some open-ended questions, was used for all participants. The licence-free version of SurveyMonkey, a Web questionnaire design and management service, was used to design and distribute the questionnaire, and to collect responses from participants.

The questionnaire consisted of eight questions relating to the subjects' use of different social media platforms in their scholarly capacity. The intention was to establish how familiar PLAAS researchers are with these platforms and if they use them professionally, either to promote their own work or to find out about other research conducted in their field.

The survey was carried out from 03 October 2016 to 21 November 2016. The time allowed for participants to respond was extended from one to two months, as there was a campus shutdown in October and November because of student protests on South African university campuses, including UWC. Twelve participants were invited, either by email or via a website, to click on a link that took them to the survey. These participants were the staff employed at PLAAS at the time of the study. The answers to the questions were stored on SurveyMonkey's secure server. After a few reminders, 10 responses were received.

3.7 Research ethics

One part of this study, the questionnaire, required information directly from human subjects and therefore ethical attention was necessary. The University of Cape Town Ethics Committee was approached and ethical clearance to proceed with the questionnaire was given (Appendix A). Because the subjects were based at the UWC it was necessary to apply for permission from UWC to use subjects from PLAAS for the research. This process was straightforward and permission from UWC was granted to conduct the survey (Appendix B).

In order to fulfil the ethical requirements, the first page of the questionnaire included information that gave researchers a choice to go to the link for the survey and to leave it at any stage, that their anonymity would be maintained and that they were not obliged to answer every question.

3.8 Conclusion

In summary, this chapter of the study described the research approach, design and methods that were used to meet the research objectives. The overall research approach is quantitative and the study analysed data from citation indices, Scopus and GS, for PLAAS authors, and from Altmetric Explorer for altmetrics, during the

period 1995-2015. The methodology of this study included recording the basic bibliographic details of each publication produced in the institution within that 20-year period in a composite list. Data was collected which included publication counts, citation counts, *h*-indices and altmetrics. A survey was sent to 12 PLAAS researchers with the aim of investigating their knowledge and use of social media in an academic capacity.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Three outlined the research methods and instruments used to collect the data for this study. This chapter presents and analyses the findings of the quantitative data collected in the following phases:

- Firstly, searches were conducted using GS, Scopus and Altmetric.com;
- Secondly, data were collected for three specific PLAAS documents through Google Analytics, Facebook and Twitter Application Programming Interfaces (APIs) in the PLAAS website;
- Thirdly, these data were supplemented by a survey of current researchers at PLAAS (Appendix C). The results are presented in this chapter to show the level of knowledge and use that researchers make of social media in the academic environment.

The data collected were used to achieve the main objective of this study, which is to record in detail the corpus of PLAAS research outputs over the period 1995–2015 and to study its activity and impact in the scholarly and social contexts. The focus is on recording the different types of scholarly communication at PLAAS and measuring their visibility; bibliometrics and altmetrics in different ways measure productivity, scholarly impact and attention in the social media. In order to achieve the specific objectives, the following was done.

- a. The body of research outputs, published both externally and internally, for the period 1995–2015 was recorded in a bibliography and number and types of outputs were examined to demonstrate the productivity of researchers in the Institute (Appendix D);
- b. Bibliometric analysis of the scholarly outputs was used to measure activity and visibility of the researchers at PLAAS through the number of citations for each output and the *h*-indices of the authors;

- c. Altmetric analysis of the scholarly outputs and of a selected sample of PLAAS-published outputs was used to measure visibility in both the scholarly and the social contexts through numbers of views, downloads, the AAS where available, Facebook shares and tweets; and
- d. The impact of the different outputs measured through bibliometrics and/or altmetrics was investigated through the analysis of the data.

4.2 Description of data collection sample

As indicated in Chapter One, PLAAS was chosen as the research site shortly after it celebrated its 20-year anniversary and various achievements, including the publication of a corpus of research for that period of time, had been highlighted. The outputs from this research institute are both traditional scholarly publications and other grey literature that is research-based but intended for an audience in government departments, NGOs, society in general as well as for scholars.

The body of work covered in this study includes all outputs produced by the set of 33 researchers that was studied. Outputs published by PLAAS but written by external authors are included in the master list but excluded from rest of the study. An example of the latter is *Policy Brief 33*, “Elite land grabbing in Namibian communal areas and its impact on subsistence farmers’ livelihoods”, published in 2011 and authored by W. Odendaal.

4.3 Data presentation

The collected data were analysed, classified and tabulated by employing statistical methods. The findings are presented below in tables and graphs, with a narrative section to describe certain notable features. Themes and sub-themes drawn from the data and the research questions are used to organise the findings.

4.3.1 Master list

In the master list or bibliography that was derived from the PLAAS group library in Zotero, 743 publications are listed over the stipulated time period by a number of different authors (Appendix D). Of these authors, 33 were PLAAS-employed researchers for at least part of the period 1995 to 2015, and this study is limited to these authors. Where there are co-authored papers by more than one PLAAS

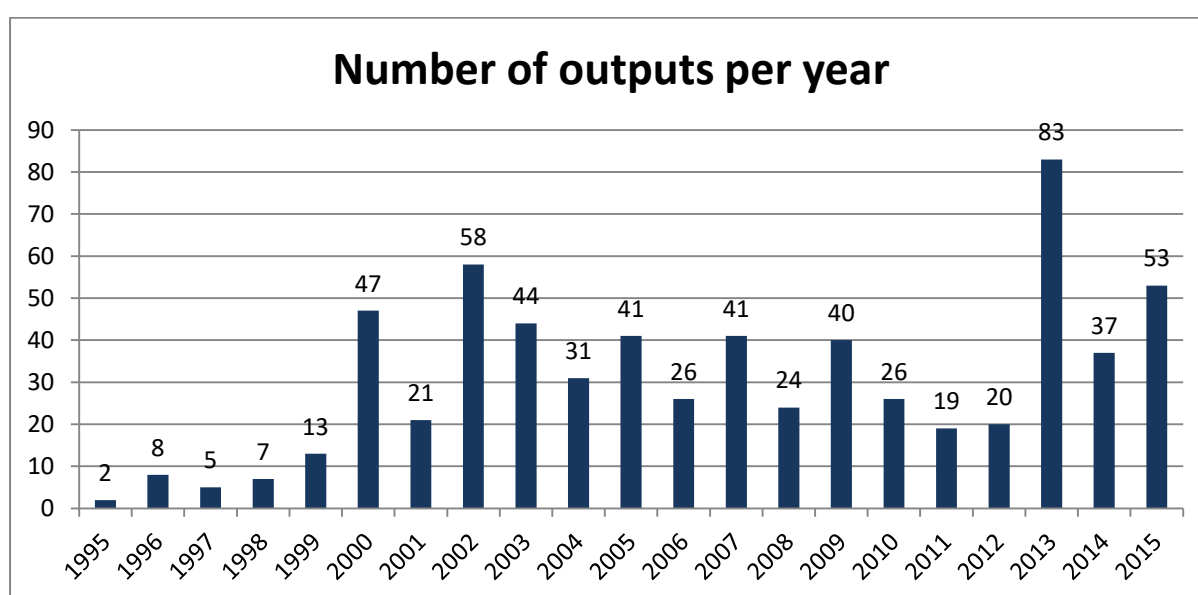
author, each of the authors has a record for that paper. This is the same policy that Scopus and GS follow for recording numbers of outputs and numbers of citations.

4.3.1.1 Outputs 1995–2015

Figure 2 shows that 2013 was the year of highest productivity for the Institute when 83 outputs were produced, followed by 58 in 2015 and third highest was 53 outputs in 2002. The lowest number of two outputs was produced in 1995, which was the year that PLAAS was founded, so the low number can be attributed to the fact that the Institute was new. The graph in Figure 2 shows there is no clear pattern in the productivity over the 20-year period, for instance, there is not a gradual increase of outputs over time but varied quantities over the years as projects and researchers have come and gone.

The average number of outputs per year taking the figures recorded for the period 1995-2015, is 37. The average was met or exceeded for eight years, 40% of the total period, as seen in Figure 2. In 2015, the last year of this study, PLAAS had a total of 53 outputs for 2015, of which six were journal articles, nine were book chapters and four were books, which is a total of 19 (36%). The grey literature, including conference papers, amounted to a total of 34 (64%). It is worth noting that the figure for 2015 was above the average by 16 outputs.

Figure 2. Number of PLAAS outputs per year (n = 743)



4.3.1.2 Document types

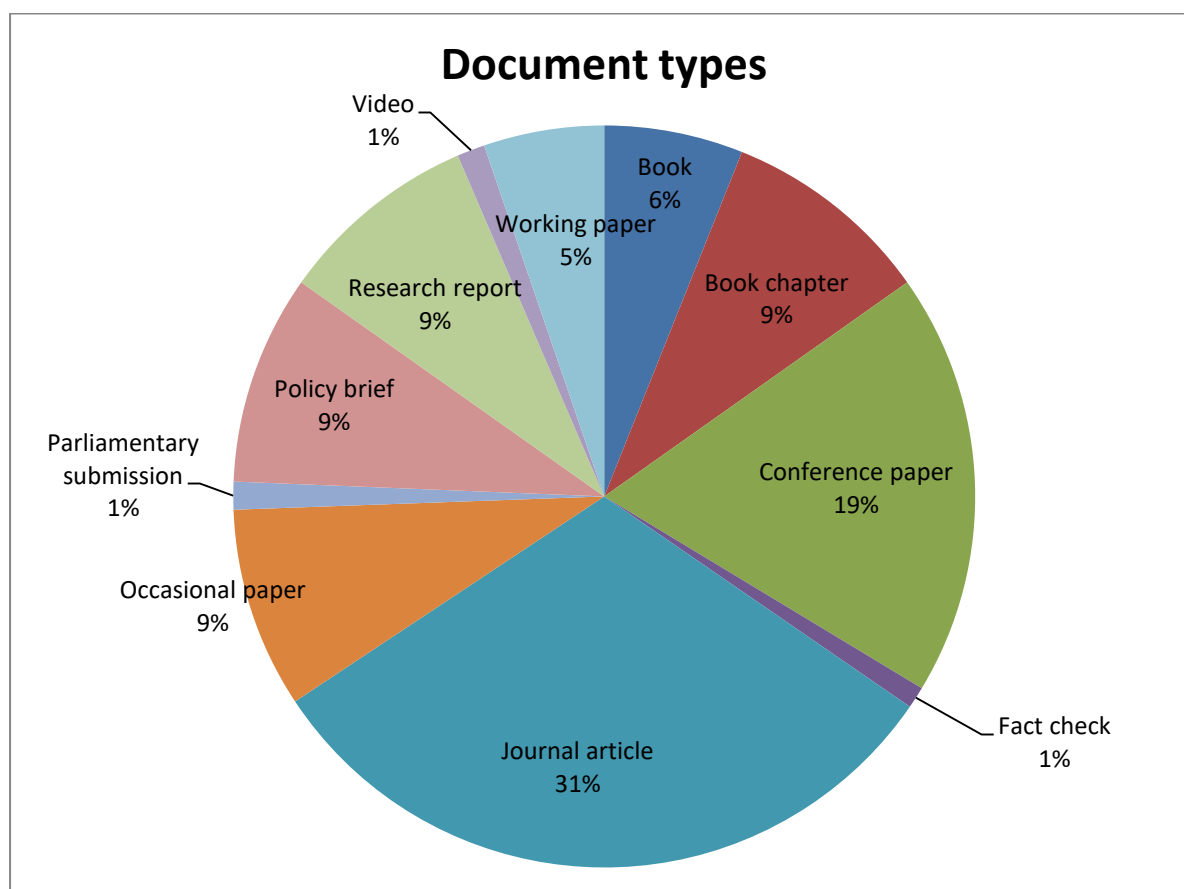
The categories of document type used in the master output list are book, book chapter, conference paper, fact check³, journal article, occasional paper, parliamentary submission, policy brief, research report, video and working paper. The majority of outputs are journal articles, numbering 231 records. The combined number of traditionally scholarly document types, namely journal article, book and book chapter, is 344 which is slightly less than one half of the total number of 743 outputs. The PLAAS-published outputs amount to 399. Table 2 gives the quantities of document types and the pie chart in Figure 3 shows a representation of these quantities in percentages.

Table 2. Number of PLAAS outputs per year (n = 743)

| Document types | Quantity |
|--------------------------|----------|
| Book | 45 |
| Book chapter | 68 |
| Conference paper | 137 |
| Fact check | 7 |
| Journal article | 231 |
| Occasional paper | 65 |
| Parliamentary submission | 9 |
| Policy brief | 68 |
| Research report | 65 |
| Video | 9 |
| Working paper | 39 |

³ PLAAS developed a series of four short publications called Fact Checks that presented clearly laid out factual information and infographics on issues of land reform in South Africa

Figure 3. PLAAS document types in percentages



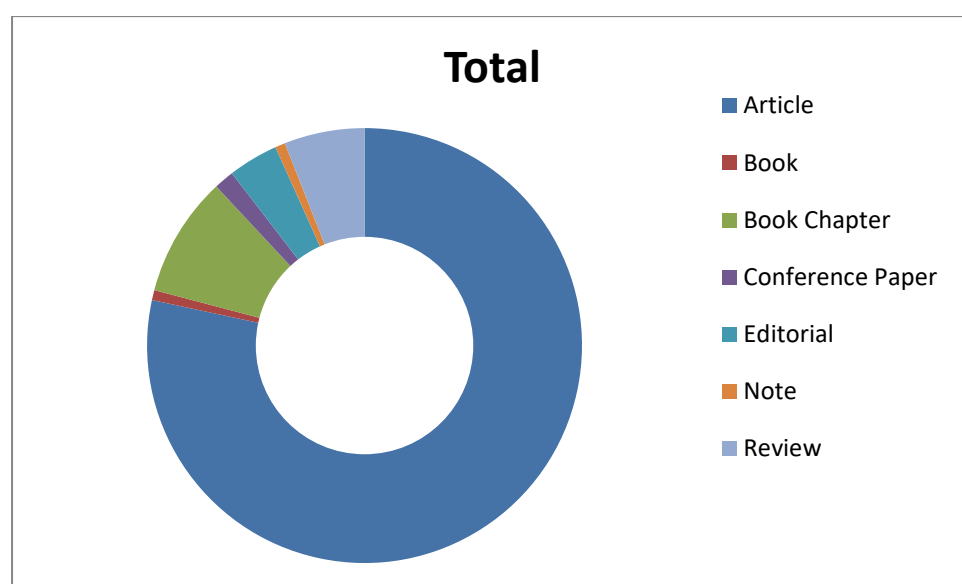
4.3.1.3 Document types in Scopus

A breakdown of the document types in Scopus (and percentages of the total for the corresponding categories in the master list) is shown in Table 3 and Figure 4. These results revealed a composition of one book (2%), 12 book chapters (18%) and a combined total for articles, notes, reviews and editorials, of 119 outputs (52%). Two conference papers (1%) have been included in grey literature in the table, as these have been counted with the grey literature in the study. Journal articles have the highest rate of being indexed in Scopus which is within expectations.

Table 3. Document types according to Scopus

| Document types | Master list | Number in Scopus | % |
|---|-------------|------------------|-----------|
| Article (incl editorial, note and review) | 231 | 119 | 52 |
| Book | 45 | 1 | 2 |
| Book chapter | 68 | 12 | 18 |
| Grey literature (incl conference papers) | 399 | 2 | 1 |
| Total | 743 | 134 | 18 |

Figure 4. Document types in Scopus results



4.3.1.4 Document types in GS

A breakdown of the document types in GS is shown in Table 4, with corresponding percentages of the master list total per category. In the remaining records, the articles total 139 (60%), conference papers amount to 14 (10%), 10 book chapters (15%) and 14 books (31%). The rest of the outputs were grey literature records that consisted have been categorised into fact checks, occasional papers, policy briefs, research reports, videos and working papers. Similarly to Scopus, journal articles have the highest rate of retrieval (60%) and working papers are next at 51%.

Table 4. Document types in GS results

| Document type | Total in master list | Number in GS | % |
|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------|-----------|
| Article | 231 | 139 | 60 |
| Book | 45 | 14 | 31 |
| Book chapter | 68 | 10 | 15 |
| Conference paper | 137 | 14 | 10 |
| Fact check | 7 | 1 | 14 |
| Occasional paper | 65 | 5 | 8 |
| Parliamentary submission | 9 | n/a | n/a |
| Policy brief | 68 | 22 | 32 |
| Research report | 65 | 25 | 38 |
| Video | 9 | 1 | 11 |
| Working paper | 39 | 20 | 51 |
| Blank records | n/a | 283 | n/a |
| Total | 743 | 535 | 72 |

4.3.1.3 Publications per author

In Figure 4 it is noted that the total of PLAAS outputs per author for the period under review is 643 which is not the same as the above total of 743. The reason for this is that there are 100 outputs that were authored by researchers working with but not employed by the Institute and they are not part of the set of 33 authors as categorised for the study..

The author with the highest number of outputs was Cousins with 142. The second and third highest producing authors were Hall (84) followed by Hara (69). Professor Emeritus Cousins is a SARChI chair in Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies at UWC. He had also been a member of staff of the Institute for the entire period of 20 years, and is a founder member of PLAAS. It is therefore not unexpected that he is the most productive author in PLAAS. The three authors, Kingwill, Ngubane and

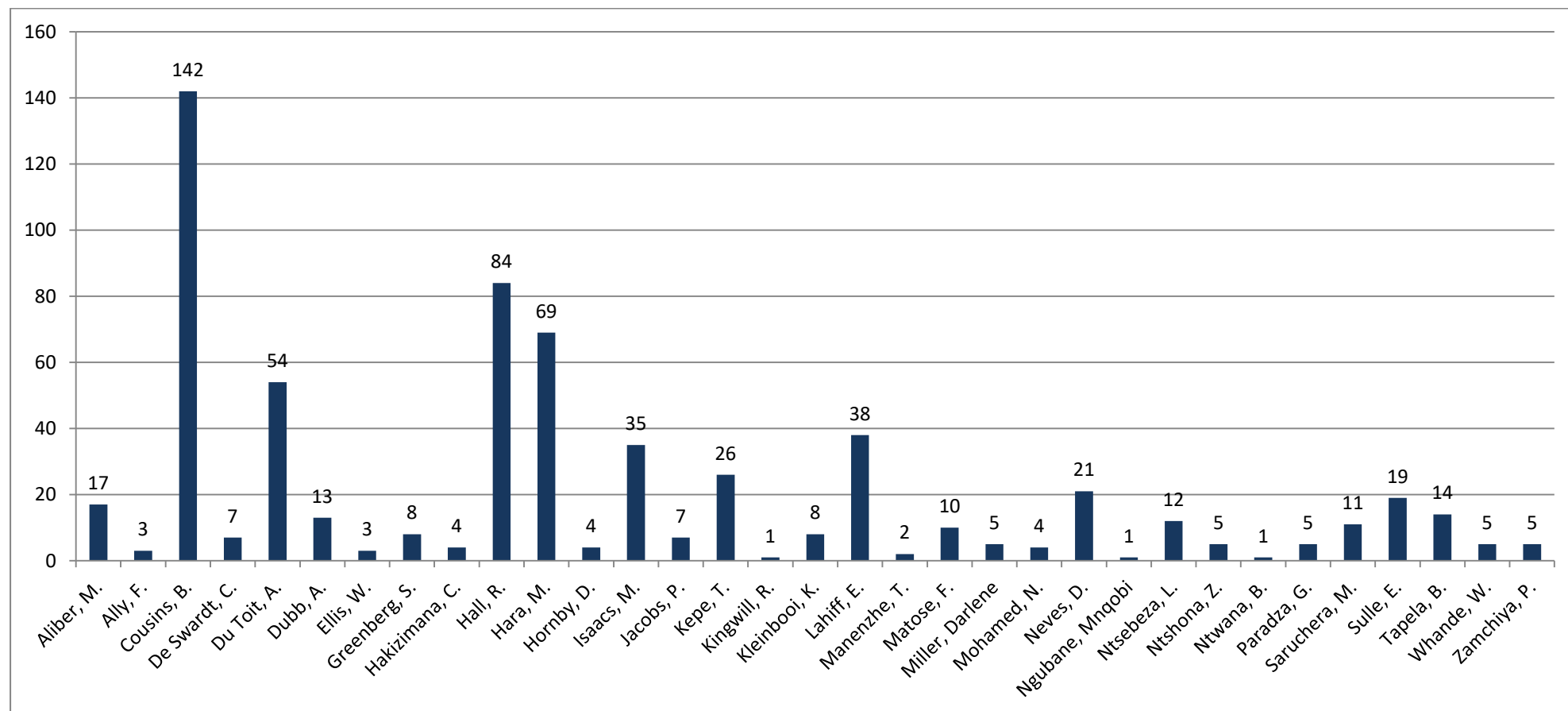
Ntwana, with the lowest count of one output each, were all new researchers who were working on PhDs and had not been at PLAAS for more than one or two years.

An analysis of the top producing authors and their scholarly outputs compared to grey literature is shown in Table 5. These results show that all authors produced almost an equal share of scholarly and grey outputs.

Table 5. Number of outputs (scholarly and grey literature) for top authors

| Author | Scholarly outputs | | Grey literature | | Total |
|---------|-------------------|----|-----------------|----|------------|
| | Number | % | Number | % | |
| Cousins | 76 | 54 | 66 | 46 | 142 |
| Hall | 47 | 56 | 37 | 44 | 84 |
| Hara | 35 | 51 | 34 | 49 | 69 |

Figure 4. Number of outputs per author



4.3.2 Bibliometrics

The data presented here is based on records for authors' outputs and citation counts retrieved from Scopus and GS citation indices.

4.3.2.1 Publication and citation counts per author

a.) Scopus

Searching in Scopus using the author search functionality, the researcher found 20 PLAAS authors with a total of 134 publications, which represents 18% of the total outputs. All were traditional scholarly outputs. The total number of citations for these publications was 2,033. What stands out in Figure 5 is that the highest number of Scopus citations (numbers shown in graph), by a sizeable amount, is for Hall at 601. Cousins had the second highest number of citations (368), followed by Du Toit (337). Cousins and Hall are well-established international researchers, in both traditional scholarly communication (such as journal articles) and in other types of engagement with the public, such as newspaper "op eds", radio interviews, and parliamentary submissions, amongst others.

It can be seen in Table 6 and in Figure 5, that the number of publications found in Scopus (134) is a small amount of the total of 743, and that Hall's citation count for instance is based on 16 publications when the total number of her publications is 79, and similarly Cousins had 28 publications in Scopus out of a total number of 147 outputs. It is also noteworthy that the outputs included in the counts are all the traditional scholarly type and there is no coverage of grey literature.

The average number of citations per author in Scopus was 62, and from Table 6 it is apparent that eight authors (40%) had this amount or more while the majority (60%) had less than 62.

Figure 5. Publications and citation counts per author (Scopus)

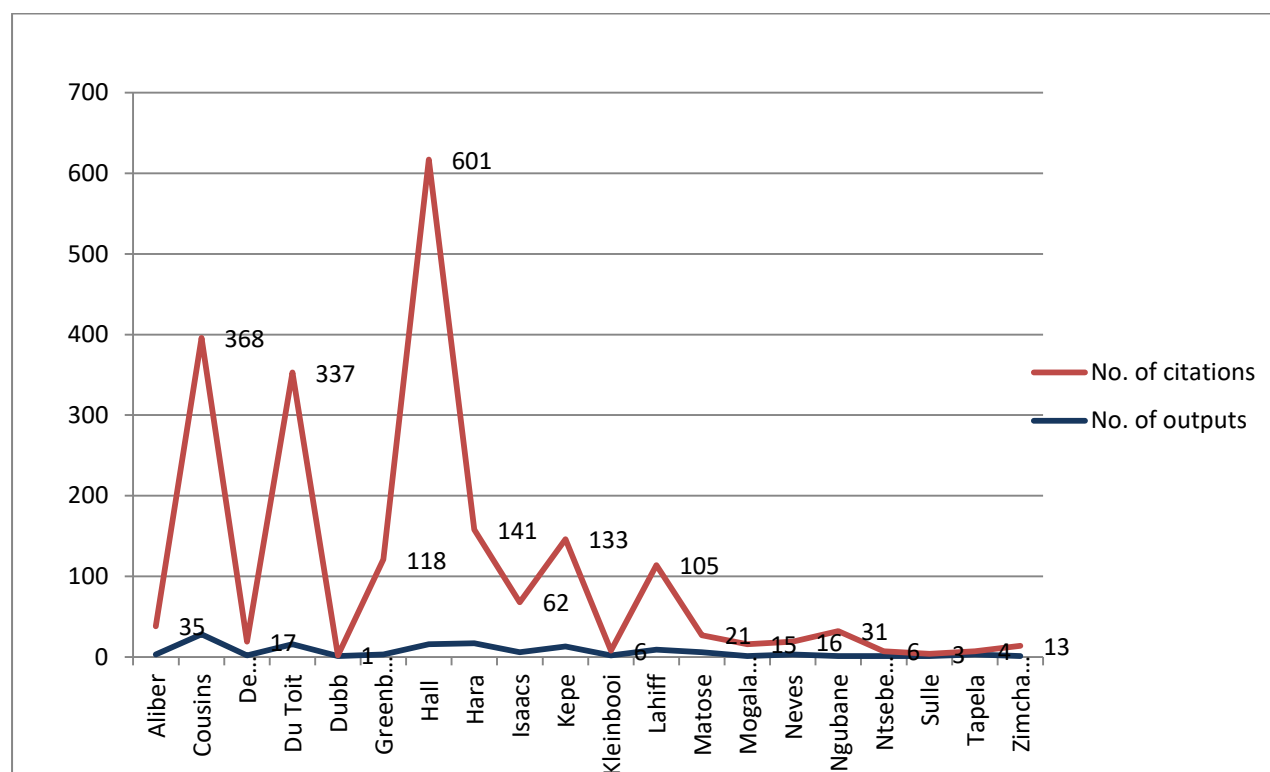


Table 6. Number of Scopus publications and citations per author

| Author | No. of Scopus outputs | No. of citations |
|-----------|-----------------------|------------------|
| Aliber | 3 | 35 |
| Cousins | 28 | 368 |
| De Swardt | 2 | 17 |
| Du Toit | 16 | 337 |
| Dubb | 1 | 1 |
| Greenberg | 3 | 118 |
| Hall | 16 | 601 |
| Hara | 17 | 141 |
| Isaacs | 6 | 62 |
| Kepe | 13 | 133 |
| Kleinbooi | 2 | 6 |
| Lahiff | 9 | 105 |
| Matose | 6 | 21 |
| Mogalada | 1 | 15 |

| | | |
|----------|---|----|
| Neves | 3 | 16 |
| Ngubane | 1 | 31 |
| Ntsebeza | 1 | 6 |
| Sulle | 1 | 3 |
| Tapela | 3 | 4 |
| Zimchaya | 1 | 13 |

b.) Google Scholar

The search for records of publications and citations in GS was conducted through a programme called Publish or Perish, software developed by Harzing in 2007 to assist with finding metrics for individual authors in GS. The search resulted in records for a total of 32 PLAAS authors and 535 publications (72% of the total 743) with the total number of citations at 11,522. The figures are shown in Table 7 and, as in the Scopus results, the author with the highest number of citations is Hall (2,344) followed by Du Toit (1,886) and then Cousins (1,831). These are the only authors with total citations above 1,500; the next highest number of citations is 870 for Kepe. In terms of the number of outputs, Hall, Cousins and Du Toit again have the highest figures and the only other author with more than 50 outputs is Hara with 55.

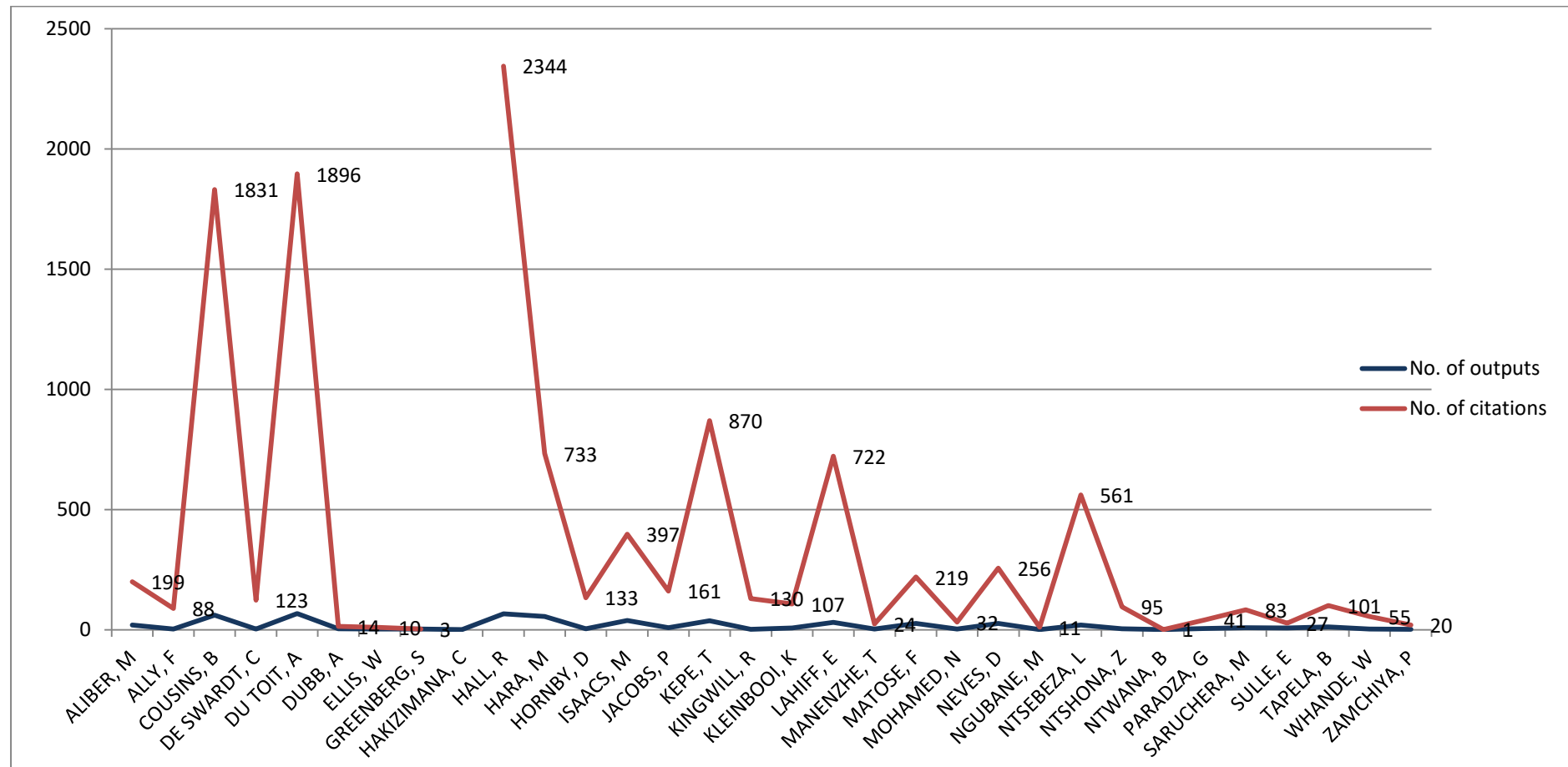
Figure 6 shows these numbers in a line graph that depicts the relatively high citation counts for Cousins, Du Toit and Hall compared to the majority of researchers at PLAAS. In GS, which presented a higher total number of citations as well as more authors, the average number of citations per author was 350. Out of 32 authors, eight (25%) had more than 350 and 24(75%) had less than 350.

Table 7. GS publications and citation counts per author

| Author | No. of GS outputs | No. of citations |
|---------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Aliber | 20 | 199 |
| Ally | 3 | 88 |
| Cousins | 61 | 1,831 |
| De Swardt | 3 | 123 |
| Du Toit | 67 | 1,896 |

| | | |
|------------|----|-------|
| Dubb | 4 | 14 |
| Ellis | 3 | 10 |
| Greenberg | 3 | 3 |
| Hakizimana | 1 | 0 |
| Hall | 66 | 2,344 |
| Hara | 55 | 733 |
| Hornby | 4 | 133 |
| Isaacs | 38 | 397 |
| Jacobs | 8 | 161 |
| Kepe | 37 | 870 |
| Kingwill | 2 | 130 |
| Kleinbooi | 7 | 107 |
| Lahiff | 31 | 722 |
| Manenzhe | 3 | 24 |
| Matose | 26 | 219 |
| Mohamed | 3 | 32 |
| Neves | 26 | 256 |
| Ngubane | 1 | 11 |
| Ntsebeza | 20 | 561 |
| Ntshona | 4 | 95 |
| Ntwana | 1 | 1 |
| Paradza | 5 | 41 |
| Saruchera | 8 | 83 |
| Sulle | 7 | 27 |
| Tapela | 12 | 101 |
| Whande | 3 | 55 |
| Zamchiya | 2 | 20 |

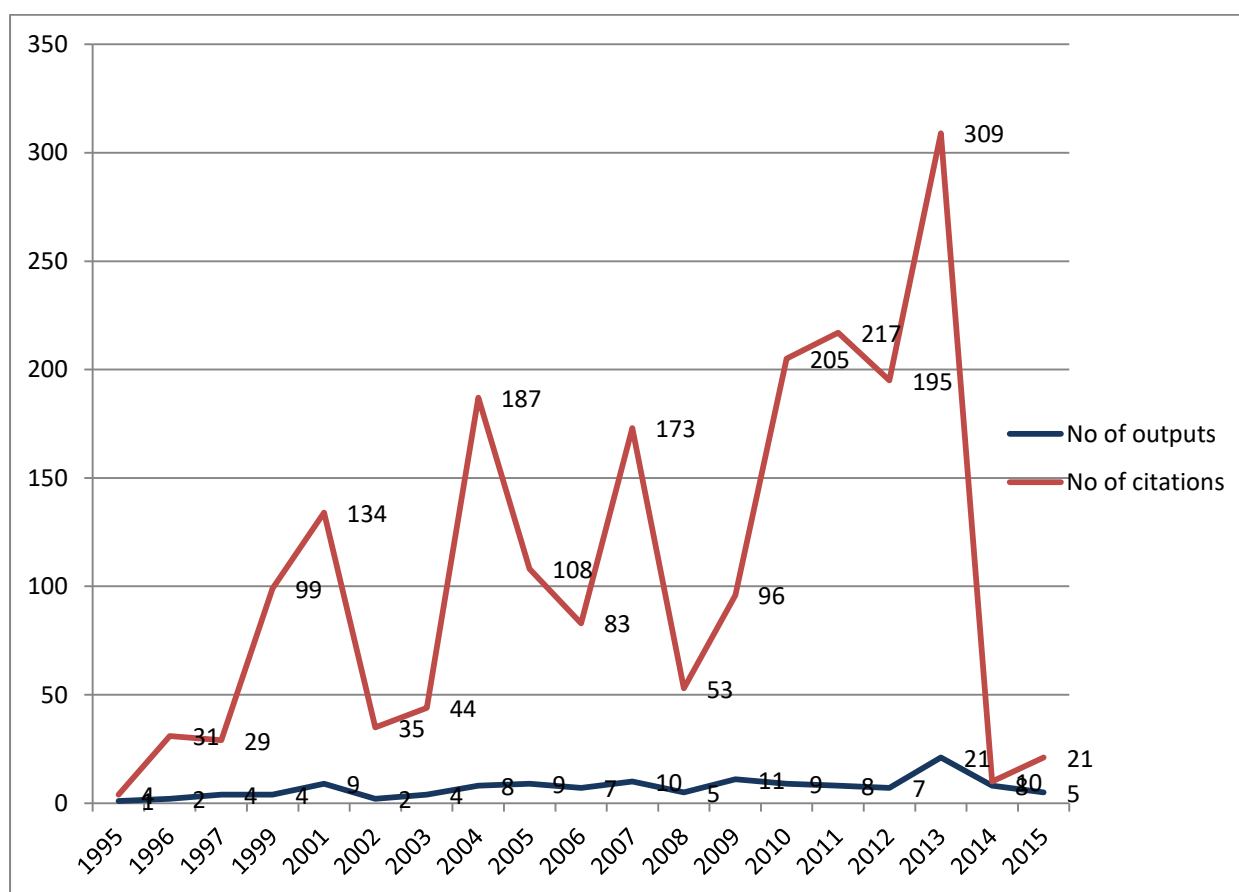
Figure 6 Google Scholar publications and citation counts per author



4.3.2.2 Publications and citations per year

As shown in Figure 7, 2013 was the year with the highest number of publications found in Scopus when 21 publications were listed. This year also had the highest number of citations of 309. Citations were more than 200 in both 2011 (217) and in 2010 (205) but the number of outputs for these years did not reach close to the level of 2013; eight were produced in 2011 and seven in 2012. The lowest number of citations was received in 1995, with a total of four based on one publication. As mentioned before, this was the year that the Institute was founded and it is not unexpected that the numbers in this year are lower than others. There were also lower figures for 2014 and 2015, which can be attributed to the citation window period of two years, which is normal for citations to accumulate.

Figure 7. Scopus total number of citations for PLAAS per year

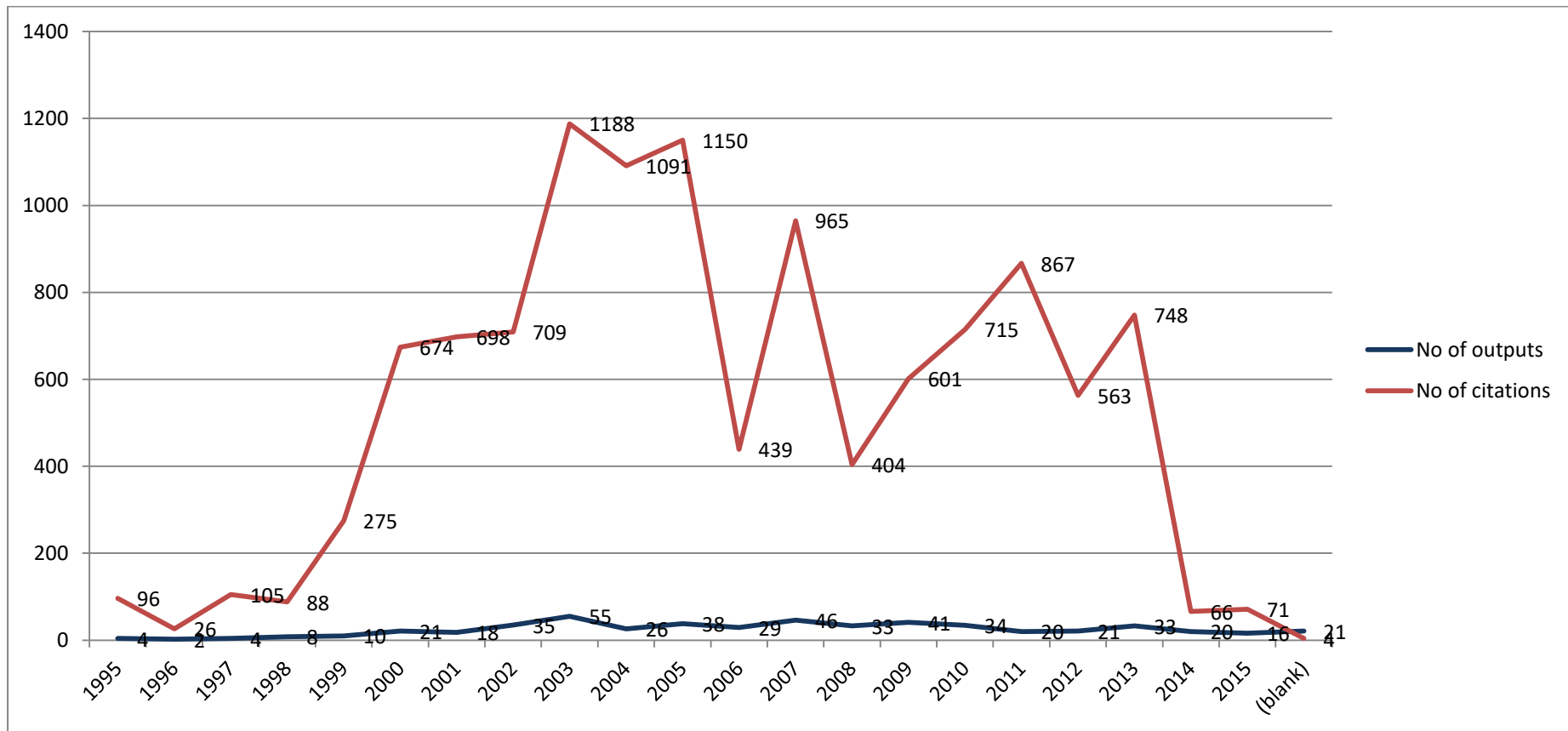


GS results recorded a much higher number of both publications and citations than Scopus for every year recorded. Figure 8 shows that the years 2010–2014 display a

similar trend to that seen in Scopus, with a higher number of citations than average. The highest number of citations in GS, however, was in 2003, when there were 1,198 recorded for 56 outputs, followed by 2005 with 1,150 citations and 38 outputs. This was not apparent in the Scopus results seen in Figure 7, as the numbers reached for 2003 and 2005 are lower, at 44 and 108, than for other years.

Similar to that found in Scopus, GS citations for 2014 and 2015 are low because of the citation window period. There are also a number of outputs found in GS (22) with no publication year but these have relatively few citations, a total of four. This is an example of one of the problems with GS as described in Chapter Three, which is that there are records with incomplete or inaccurate information making reliable identification difficult.

Figure 8. GS total number of citations for PLAAS per year



4.3.2.3 *The most cited articles*

A search for the three articles that were cited the most in both Scopus and GS showed results as presented in Table 8. The top two in both citation indices are co-authored by Hall and others. The third differed in each index: in GS it was an article by Cousins and in Scopus it was another article co-authored by Hall.

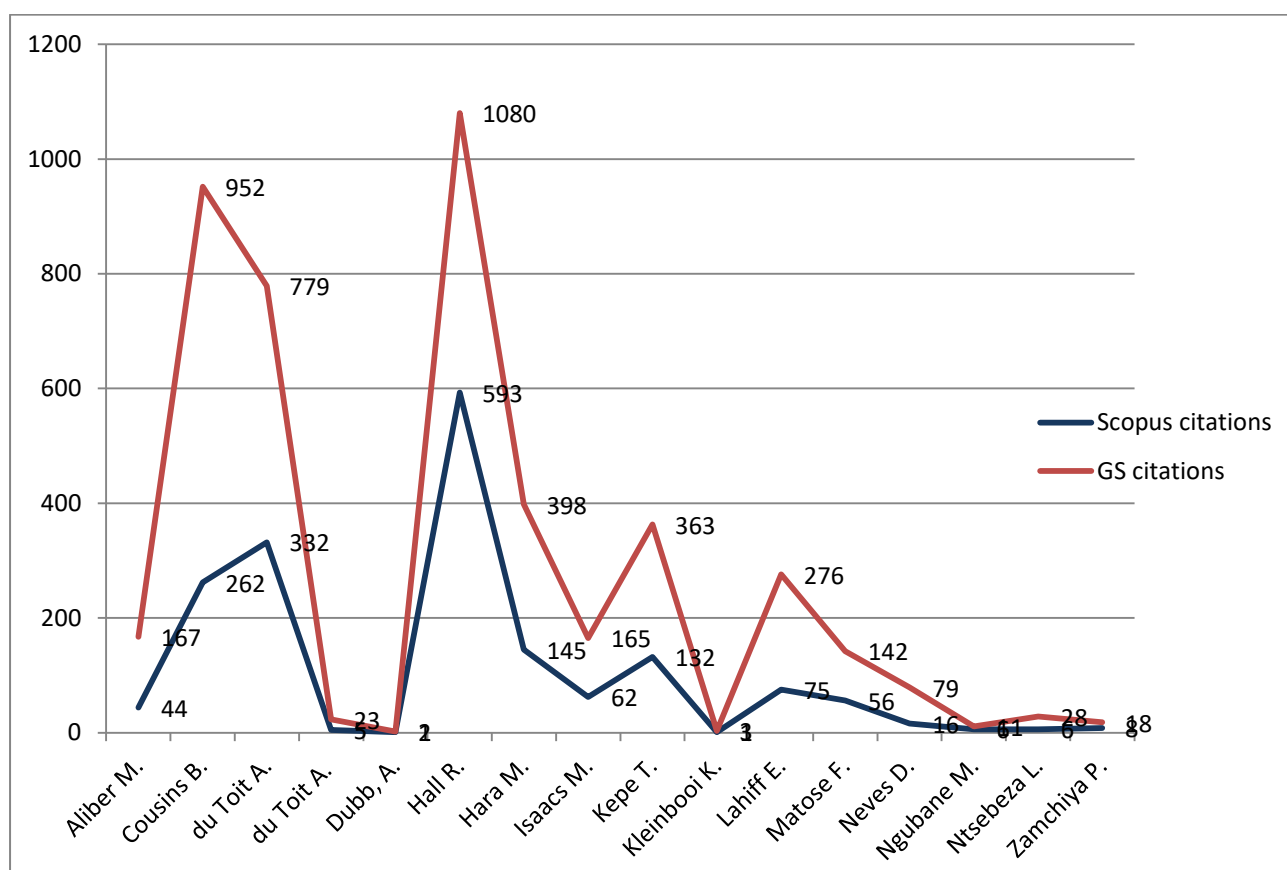
Table 8. Most cited articles

| GOOGLE SCHOLAR | No. of citations |
|---|-------------------------|
| Hall | |
| Towards a better understanding of global land grabbing: an editorial introduction | 364 |
| The new enclosures: critical perspectives on corporate land deals | 318 |
| Cousins | |
| The role of land-based strategies in rural livelihoods: the contribution of arable production, animal husbandry and natural resource harvesting in communal areas in South Africa | 205 |
| SCOPUS | No. of citations |
| Hall | |
| Towards a better understanding of global land grabbing: an editorial introduction | 164 |
| The new enclosures: critical perspectives on corporate land deals | 159 |
| Governing global land deals: the role of the state in the rush for land | 86 |

4.3.2.4 Records common to both Scopus and GS

This section deals with the records of outputs that were found in both Scopus and GS and compares the results of citation counts for these outputs. A total of 107 records was found in both Scopus and GS but with different citation counts. Figure 9 presents a clear graph of the trends of each author's citations; while numbers might be different for each citation index, the general patterns for each author are similar. There were five authors in common in each citation index: Cousins, Du Toit, Hall, Hara and Isaacs which largely correlates with the authors of the top number of publications, citations and *h*-indices shown later in this chapter.

Figure 9. Citations per author for Scopus and GS



4.3.2.5 The *h*-index

In 2005 a scientist by the name of Jorge E. Hirsch published a paper in which he advocated the use of a new index for measuring the impact of a researcher. The paper led to a flurry of responses, most of which were positive and supported the adoption of this metric (Jacso, 2008). In its simplest form, the *h*-index is calculated by counting the number of publications and also counting the number of citations so

each scientist has index h if h of his/her Np papers have at least h citations each, and the other $(Np-h)$ papers have no more than h citations each (Hirsch, 2005:741). The advantage of the h -index is that it combines an assessment of both quantity (number of papers) and quality (impact, or citations to these papers) (Harzing, 2016).

Two issues to be aware of in using this author level metric are firstly career age of the author, meaning how long s/he has been publishing will affect the h -index because a scholar who has been publishing for 30 years will generally have far more publications than a scholar who has been publishing for only five years. Since the number of publications is part of the calculation of the h -index, the younger scientist will be at a disadvantage. Secondly, there are differences in the various disciplines, again because of the tendency to publish more, often shorter, papers in the natural sciences than in the social sciences. In the humanities, where monographs are often published rather than journal articles or other shorter outputs, the number of publications is even less. It is, therefore, important not to compare different authors' h -indices if there is a significant difference in number of publications.

The data that collected are from both GS and Scopus records, using Harzing's PoP software to retrieve the GS h -index, and using Scopus for its h -index. The 1995-2015 time period was specified in the search for the authors' outputs, so that only the outputs of those years are included in the calculation of the h -index. This was an attempt to limit the comparison of different authors' career ages, but it cannot be entirely successful because of the authors' chronological ages as well.

In Figure 10, the bar graph shows the h -index per author as derived from the data in Scopus and GS and as can be seen, these values vary, in part because of factors of career age. The authors with the three highest h -indices found in GS are Cousins with 32, followed by Du Toit and Hall, both with 24. Scopus results give Cousins the highest at 14, followed by Du Toit (11) and Hall (10). Although the values are different due to the different databases from which the numbers were taken, the pattern is that the same three authors have the top h -indices in each database.

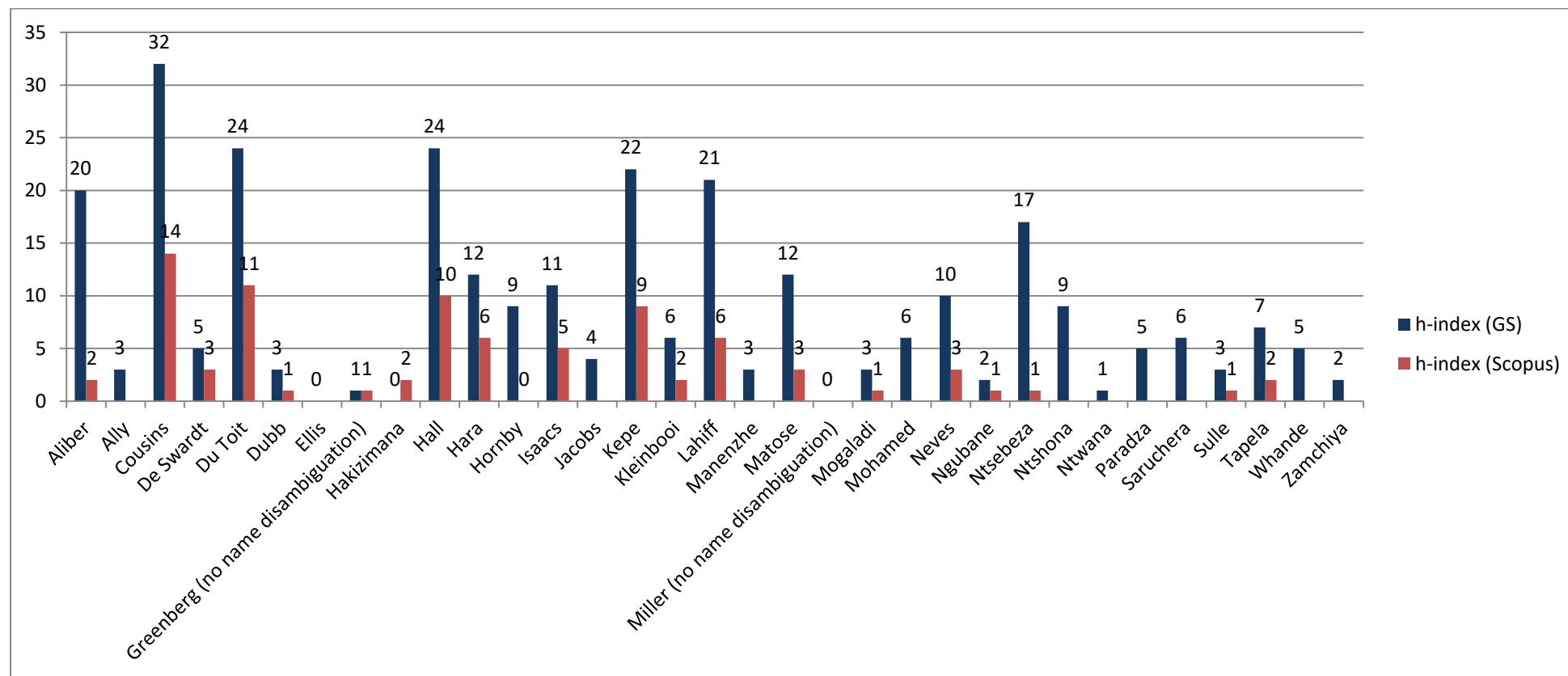
4.3.2.6 National Research Foundation (NRF) Ratings

The NRF is a research funding agency established by the government in the 1980s and one important role that the NRF plays is in rating and evaluating individual researchers. Five categories exist, which are A, B, C, Y and P, described by Inglesi-Lotz and Pouris (2011:749) as:

“A-rated scientists are those who are recognised by their peers as top international scholars in their field for the quality and impact of their research. Researchers that are B-rated, enjoy considerable international recognition by their peers. C-rank is achieved by established researchers with a sustained record of productivity recently. P and Y rated researchers are young scholars that have shown potential for future international careers.”

An investigation into NRF ratings for researchers at UWC revealed that a number of researchers in different faculties have successfully achieved ratings, including three PLAAS researchers. These are Cousins who is B rated, Hara is C rated and Hall is P/Y rated. Furthermore, in addition to his B ranking, Cousins holds a SARChI chair in Land Issues and Poverty Alleviation which is a prestigious position, and carries funding with it. He is one of only 13 SARChI chairs at UWC in 2015. According to the NRF website, the “main goal of the Research Chairs initiative is to strengthen and improve research and innovation capacity of public universities for producing high quality postgraduate students and research and innovation outputs” (National Research Foundation, n.d.).

Figure 10. H-indices of authors compared in Scopus and Google Scholar



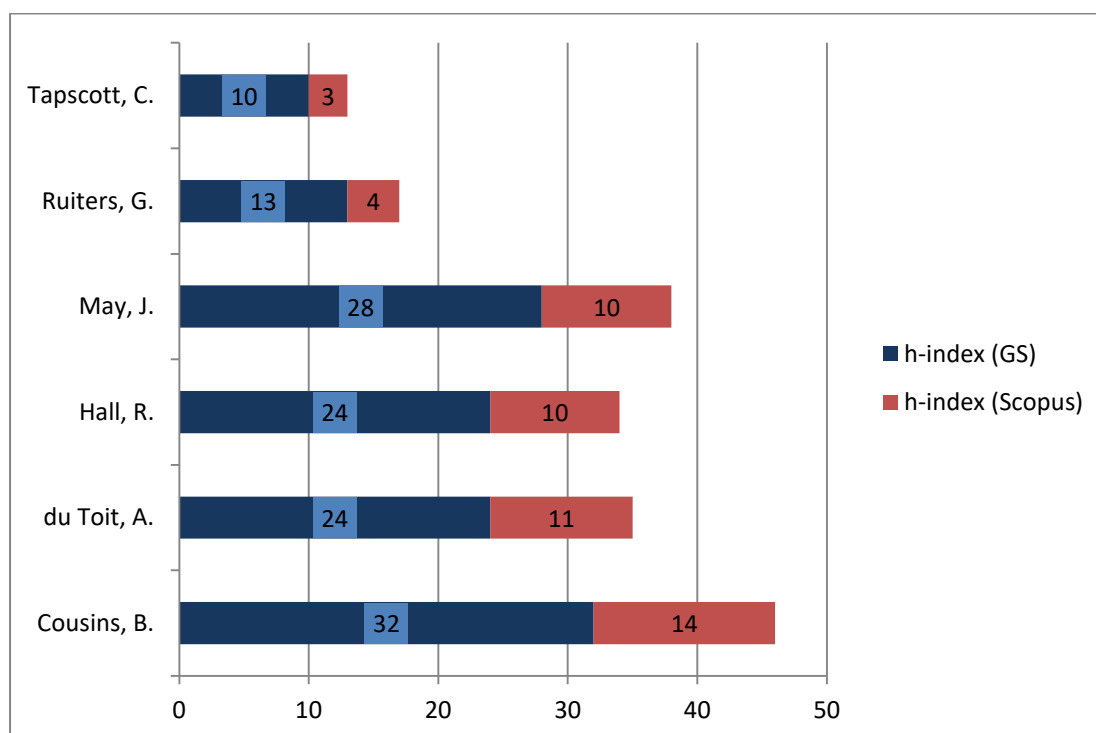
In order to find more meaning in the value of the *h*-indices of the top three PLAAS authors, it was necessary to compare their scores with those of other academics in a similar discipline and of similar career ages at the same institution. The researcher looked for a research unit at UWC that is similar to PLAAS and with authors comparable to these PLAAS authors. Accordingly, the decision was made to use three researchers in the School of Government (SOG) at UWC, which like PLAAS is also in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences.

The SOG was established in 1993 “as part of a broad initiative to meet the education and training challenges of a post-apartheid society and as a means of supporting the process of social, political and economic transformation in South Africa” (School of Government, UWC, n.d.). The School conducts policy-related research as well as training for the public sector and NGOs and trade unions (SOG, n.d.).

Using their numbers of publications and citations as well as the *h*-index in PoP and Scopus searches, the highly cited authors in the SOG that were selected were Professor May, who is currently Director of the Centre of Excellence in Food Security, Professor Tapscott who is Director of the SOG, and Professor Ruiters, who is Professor of Public Policy in the SOG. May is not technically in the SOG itself but is the Director of the Institute for Social Development (ISD) which is a research institute similar to PLAAS that falls under the SOG.

Figure 11 compares the different results for SOG and PLAAS researchers. All three ISD authors have *h*-indices that are lower than the top three in PLAAS, although the highest in both is close at 32 for Cousins and 28 for May from GS, while Scopus gives Cousins 14 and May 10. This is followed for the PLAAS researchers by 24 for both Hall and Du Toit in GS, and for SOG by Ruiters with 13 and Tapscott with 10. In Scopus, although the scores are different values, the authors follow the same order of highest to lowest, although Hall and Du Toit differ by one point with Du Toit at 11 and Hall at 10.

Figure 11. Comparative researchers' h-indices from Google Scholar and Scopus



4.3.3 Survey of PLAAS researchers in 2016

A short questionnaire was sent to the researchers at PLAAS during 2016, in order to survey their existing knowledge and use of social media in an academic sphere. Out of the 12 questionnaires sent, 10 responses were received, which is a response rate of 83%. The results of the survey are presented following the order of the questions, with tables and graphs (from SurveyMonkey) depicting results as well as a narrative to describe particular points of interest for this study.

Question 1

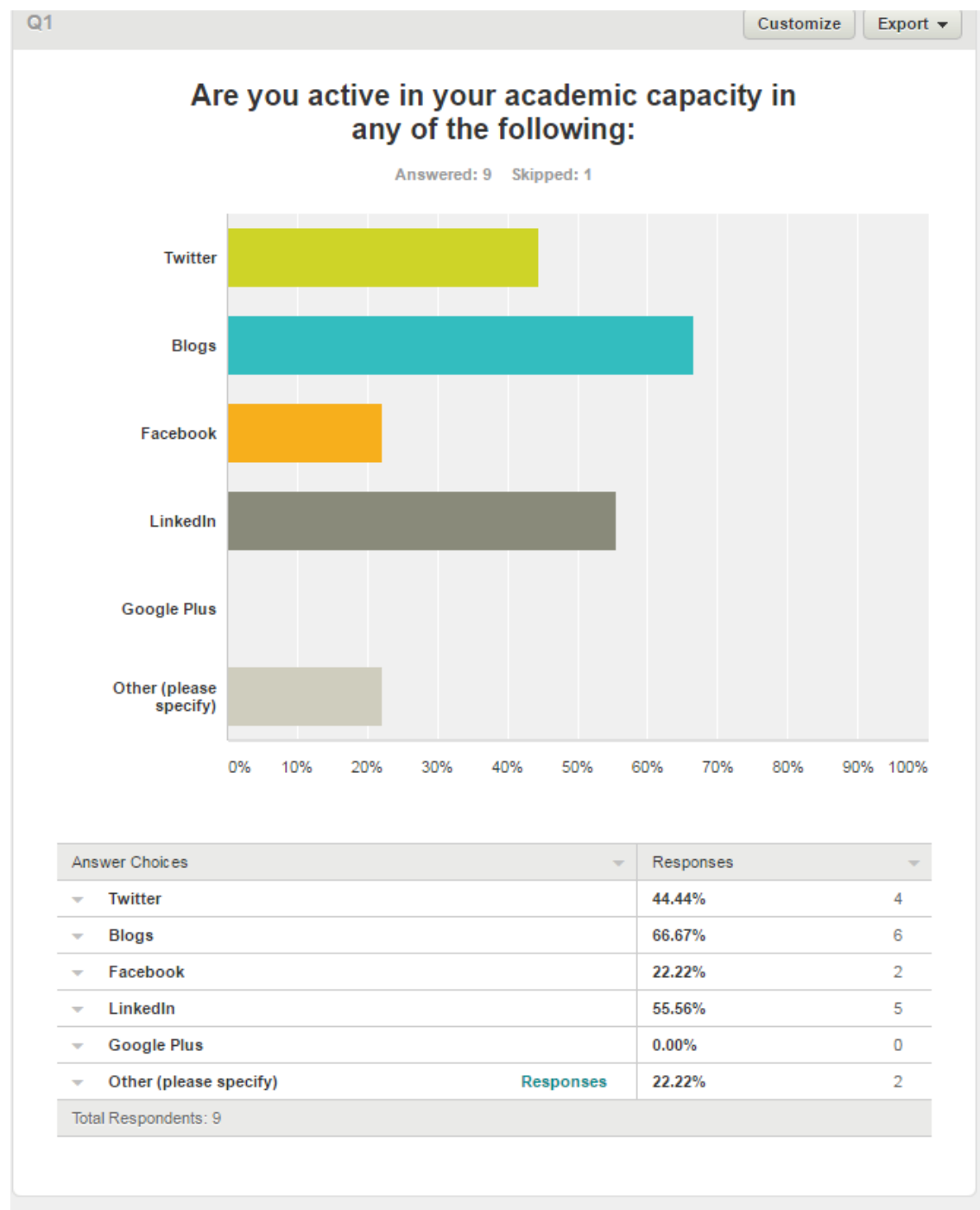
The first question asked if the researcher was active in his/her academic capacity in any of the following social networking platforms: Twitter, Blogs, Facebook, LinkedIn and GooglePlus. Nine out of 10 researchers responded, with one person skipping this question. The aim of the question was to get an indication of whether the researchers use these social media not for personal reasons but to discuss, promote or find information for their research.

The responses were mixed, with most researchers using blogs followed by those active on LinkedIn. The PLAAS website has a blog section called 'Another countryside' where researchers are encouraged and reminded to post blogs about

their research and this is a possible reason why there was such a high response rate. No researchers were active in GooglePlus. One researcher commented in “Other”, saying that s/he mainly uses email instead of these platforms.

The numbers are presented in Figure 12 (taken from SurveyMonkey) along with a graph showing the results.

Figure 12. Social networking platform activity (from SurveyMonkey)



Question 2

The second question asking whether a researcher had a personal website received 100% negative response, with a comment from one person indicating that s/he has intended to set up a website for some time but has been too busy to do so. While some scholars have their own personal websites in South Africa, it is rare. It seems to be more common in Britain and the United States than in South Africa or Africa. This response was therefore not unexpected.

Question 3

This question aimed to find out if the researchers used any of the following reference management and sharing software in their research: Mendeley, Zotero, CiteULike or Reddit. This question was answered by eight respondents with two people skipping the question. Seven out of the eight respondents (86%) said they use Zotero and only one respondent also uses Mendeley. PLAAS maintains an internal library in Zotero, where all researchers are required to maintain their personal information on all kinds of outputs, so this corresponds with the high use of Zotero. One additional response, given as a comment, was that the respondent also uses Evernote. The results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Use of reference management and sharing

| Platform | No. of users | % of respondents |
|-----------------|---------------------|-------------------------|
| Mendeley | 1 | 12.5 |
| Zotero | 7 | 87.5 |
| CiteULike | 0 | 0.0 |
| Reddit | 0 | 0.0 |

Question 4

The fourth question, 'Do you have any entries in Wikipedia?' was answered by all respondents in the negative.

Question 5

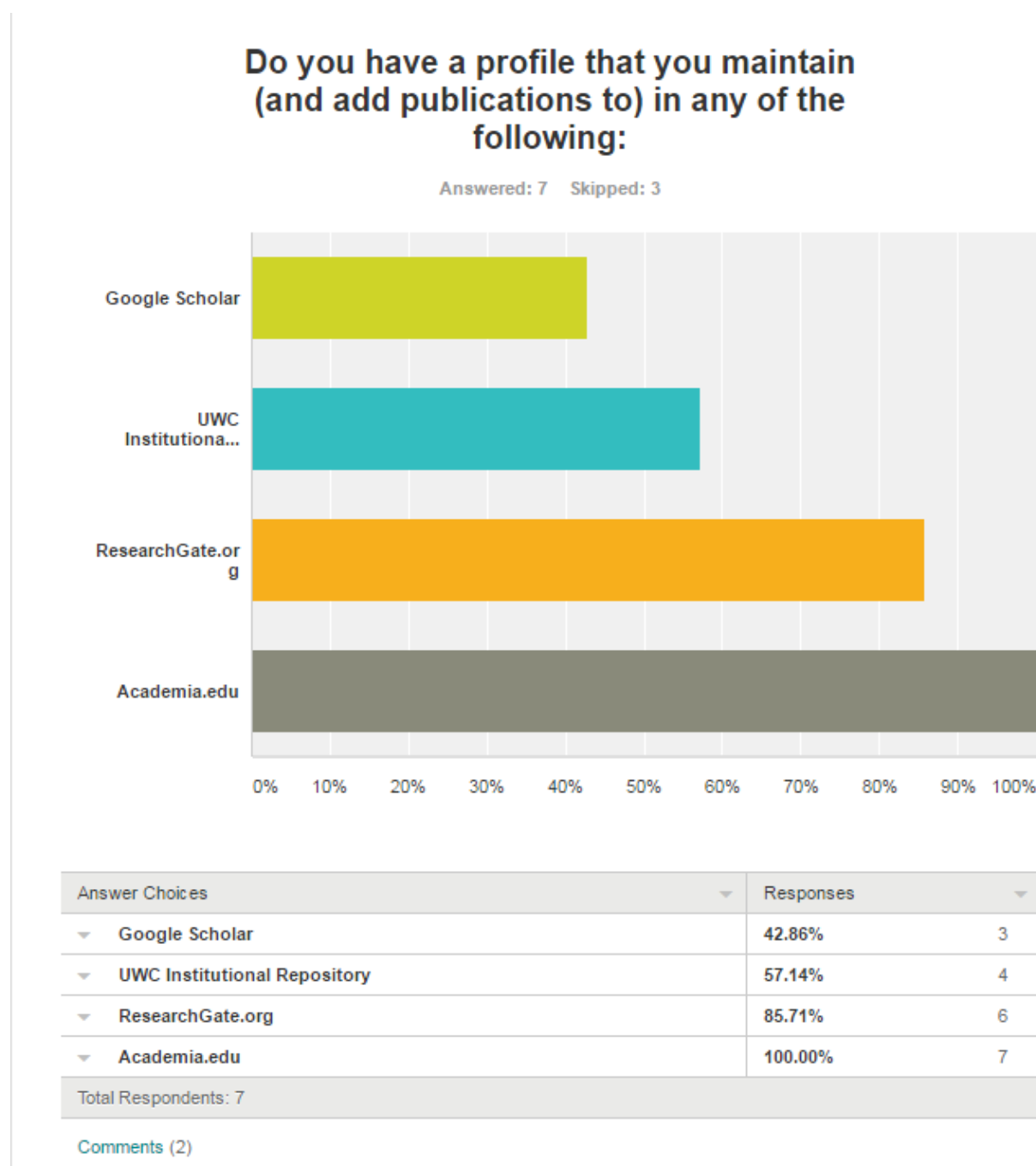
This question gave mixed responses from seven respondents which are shown in Figure 13. Researchers were asked if they have a profile that they maintain (and add publications to) in any of the following: GS, UWC Institutional Repository, ResearchGate.net, Academia.edu. The aim of this question was to find out how

active researchers were in maintaining their academic profiles in open access repositories and other open platforms, and also to find out how much they broadened out from the journal article as the only means of having a presence in scholarly communication.

The first two options, GS and the Institutional Repository, had the lowest responses of three and four people respectively. Although each researcher at PLAAS does have a GS profile, this has been set up and maintained by the Information and Communications team in PLAAS; clearly the researchers are not all aware of this as only three out of seven gave GS as an answer. Similarly, none of the researchers is personally active in submitting outputs to the UWC repository, although a number of them do have entries there. The response from only four researchers that they have a profile in the repository points to this situation. The librarian has been submitting outputs over the past five years, although trying to work with the researchers when doing so.

Of the seven respondents, all use Academia.edu followed closely by ResearchGate.net, both commercial scholarly networks. Figure 13 shows these responses in table and graph form.

Figure 13. Academic profile (from SurveyMonkey)



Question 6

The last multiple-choice-type question asked whether researchers have an ORCID ID and the majority of researchers who answered, which was eight out of 10, indicated that they did not. One comment was that the researcher was “not aware that I have any”, and of the two who responded that they do have an ORCID ID one gave an invalid number and the other did not know what it was, nor did this person

remember the password to get into the ORCID website to find out. It is clear that neither is actively using ORCID.

Along with the DOI and other handles that make locating and keeping a document with one online address, the ORCID is increasingly useful as a unique identifier, or permanent individual identifier, for researchers. In the case of a few PLAAS researchers, their names are not unique to them and this causes incorrect entries in GS.

Question 7

The last question was open ended and asked if there was anything else the respondents wished to add and six people answered while four skipped this question. Two answers were “No”. One of the comments was not directly related to the questions, and concerned issues of saving documents securely. Another person wanted to know more about keeping citations and profiles up to date and collated, and made reference to ResearchGate.net. Another researcher referred to building a personal website when s/he had time. There was only one comment that was in line with the intention of this question and referred to the importance of using social media platforms to increase impact and visibility for the author and the Institute. Part of the comment was that “We are punching below our potential weight because of not building our online presence”. Reasons given for not using them is that there is a learning curve that takes time and “it is not a priority when there are more urgent things to do”.

Question 8

An optional question at the end of the questionnaire asked respondents to give their name and position at PLAAS. The results were incomplete and not useful for any kind of analysis. Nine researchers completed the section and one skipped it.

4.3.4 Altmetrics

Altmetric indicators for PLAAS outputs were more difficult to source than bibliometrics. As discussed in Chapter Three, there are three main tools available for altmetric analysis of scholarly outputs. These are PlumX, ImpactStory and Altmetric and they aggregate social media activity and an array of other metrics, (such as

mainstream media mentions) and citations, producing their own particular indicator/s accordingly.

4.3.4.1 Altmetric.com

Altmetric was selected for this research, and a search was carried out for the 33 PLAAS authors using the Explorer advanced search function with a date range specified for each author. A total of 46 records were retrieved, which is 6% of the total number of outputs from PLAAS for the period 1995–2015.

The AAS has been described by Torres-Salinas, Robinson-Garcia and Jiménez-Contreras (2016) as an indicator where the calculation is “based on a weighted sum of values based on the presence of a given article in different social media”. Out of the selection of outputs, 38 had an AAS while eight outputs did not have a value. These eight records are nevertheless in the Altmetric Explorer database and as soon as there is any activity around an item (such as tweets, Facebook shares, Mendeley readers) the score will reflect this and will continue to process activity for all records and reflect it in the AAS.

Shown in Table 10 are the 46 titles and their corresponding AASs, listed under the author with this score in the last column (where available). The AAS ranges from one for a number of outputs to the highest score of 59 for an article authored by Hall. The total of the AASs is given for each author. These counts and how they relate to measuring visibility and impact will be discussed in Chapter Five.

Altmetric has established a relationship with Scopus whereby, when a publication in Scopus has available altmetrics, these are included in the Scopus record. Likewise in Altmetric, where there are Scopus citation counts, these are included in the Altmetric record. I have not included the Scopus citations that are available in this set of records, firstly, as there are very few of them available for these records (15); secondly, there is very little useful information to be gained from this small dataset and thirdly, no other citation counts are available in Altmetric, such as those from GS or WoS.

Table 10. Authors and their outputs with an AAS

| Author and Title | AAS |
|---|------------|
| Aliber | 1 |
| Support for smallholder farmers in South Africa: challenges of scale and strategy | 1 |
| Cousins | 8 |
| Formalisation of land rights in the South | 6 |
| Livestock and the rangeland commons | 1 |
| More than socially embedded | |
| Socio-economic rights | 1 |
| De Swardt | 1 |
| Perceptions of informal safety nets: A case study from a South African informal settlement | |
| Urban poverty in Cape Town | 1 |
| Du Toit | 9 |
| Myths of globalisation: private regulation and farm worker livelihoods on Western Cape farms | 3 |
| Social exclusion discourse and chronic poverty: a South African case study | 1 |
| Stuffed and starved: book review | 1 |
| The government of poverty and the arts of survival: mobile and recombinant strategies at the margins of the South African economy | 3 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Urban poverty in Cape Town | 1 |
| Dubb | 3 |
| <hr/> | |
| The rise and decline of small-scale sugarcane production in South Africa: a historical perspective | 3 |
| Hall | 99 |
| <hr/> | |
| A political economy | 1 |
| Farmworkers | 2 |
| Governing global land deals | 10 |
| Governing global land deals: the role of the state in the rush for land | |
| Land grabbing in Southern Africa: the many faces of the investor rush | 59 |
| Livestock and the rangeland commons | 1 |
| Resistance, acquiescence or incorporation? An introduction to land grabbing and political reactions 'from below' | 14 |
| Support for smallholder farmers in South Africa: challenges of scale and strategy | 1 |
| The politics of evidence | 11 |
| Hara | 27 |
| <hr/> | |
| Analysis of South African commercial traditional linefish snoek value chain | 9 |
| Community response: decline of the Chambo in Lake Malawi's Southeast Arm | |
| Could marine resources provide a short-term solution to declining fish supply in SADC inland countries? The case of horse mackerel | 3 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Fisheries co management - —an institutional innovation? Lessons from South East Asia and Southern Africa | 6 |
| Institutions and co-management in East African inland and Malawi fisheries: a critical perspective | 6 |
| Lessons from existing modes of governance in Malawi's small-scale fisheries | |
| Restoring the Chambo in southern Malawi: learning from the past or re-inventing the wheel? | 3 |
| Isaacs | 4 |
| A decision support tool for response to global change in marine systems: the IMBER-ADApT Framework | 2 |
| Creating action space: small-scale fisheries policy reform in South Africa | |
| Multi-stakeholder process of co-designing small-scale fisheries policy in South Africa | 2 |
| The governability of small-scale fisheries food system in South Africa: the case of Snoek and West Coast Rock Lobster | |
| Kleinbooi | 2 |
| Reshaping women's land rights on communal rangeland | 2 |
| Lahiff | 8 |
| Land redistribution in South Africa : a critical review | 6 |
| Land reform in South Africa 100 years after the Natives' Land Ac | 2 |
| Matose | 11 |

| | |
|--|---|
| Co-management options for reserved forests in Zimbabwe and beyond: policy implications of forest management strategies | 3 |
| Pourquoi s'intéresser à la notion d' « evidence-based policy » ? | 8 |

Mogaladi

Decentring poverty, reworking government: social movements and states in the government of poverty.

| | |
|--------------|----------|
| Neves | 3 |
|--------------|----------|

| | |
|---|---|
| The government of poverty and the arts of survival: mobile and recombinant strategies at the margins of the South African economy | 3 |
|---|---|

| | |
|--------------|----------|
| Sulle | 4 |
|--------------|----------|

| | |
|--|---|
| Biofuels investments in Tanzania: policy options for sustainable business models | 3 |
|--|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| Challenges and methodological flaws in reporting the global land rush: observations from Tanzania | 1 |
|---|---|

| | |
|---------------|----------|
| Tapela | 2 |
|---------------|----------|

| | |
|--------------|---|
| Book reviews | 1 |
|--------------|---|

| | |
|--|---|
| Roman water law in rural Africa: the unfinished business of colonial dispossession | 1 |
|--|---|

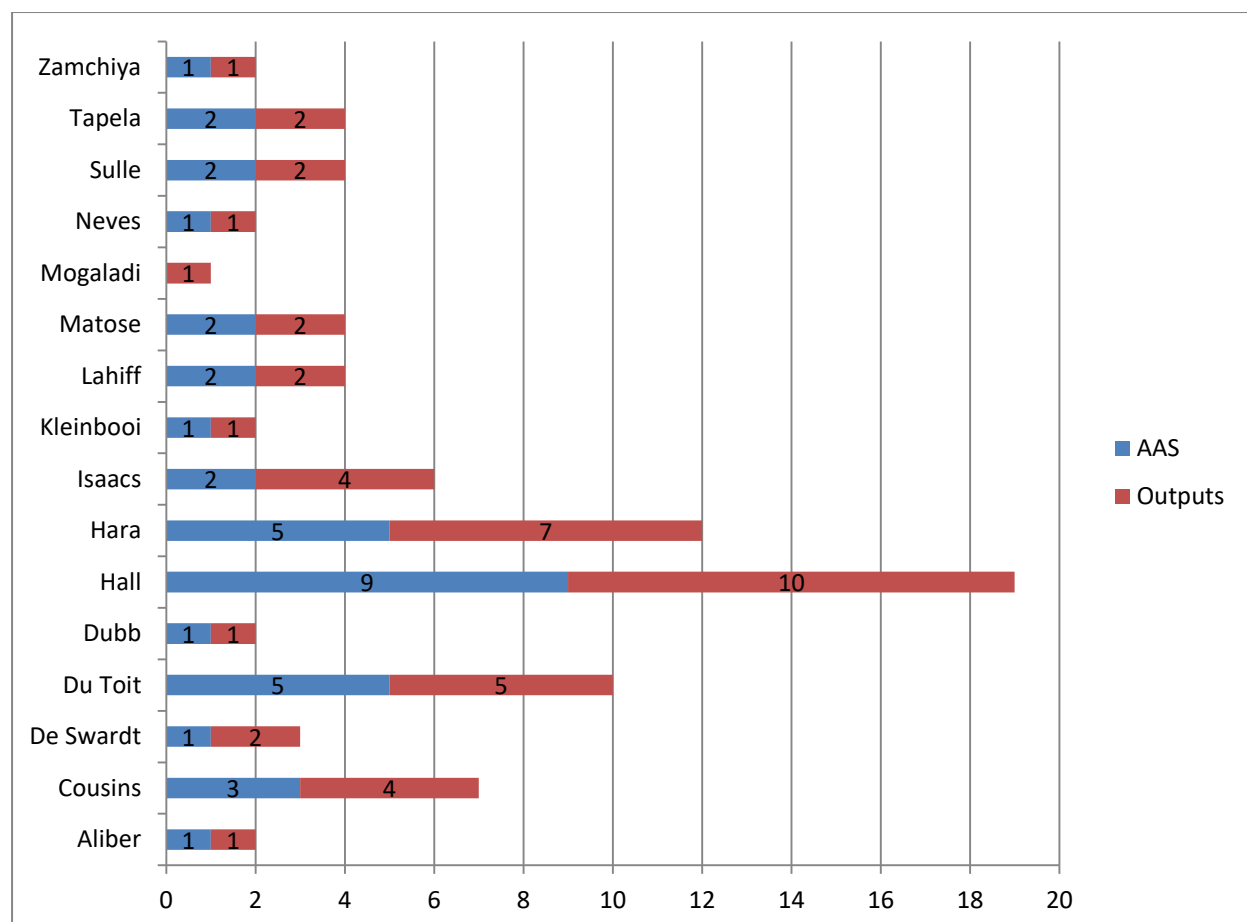
| | |
|-----------------|----------|
| Zamchiya | 2 |
|-----------------|----------|

| | |
|--|---|
| Farm workers and farm dwellers in Limpopo province, South Africa | 2 |
|--|---|

In addition to the AAS, counts of Twitter activity and Facebook shares were retrieved from the Altmetric Explorer search. The most activity was on Twitter, with a total of 120 tweets for all the outputs. There are four outputs with Facebook shares, giving a total of seven, and not every output has social media activity, but might have citations. Some records show that there is an AAS and no social media activity, because the AAS includes a number of other sources in their calculation of the AAS.

The bar graph in Figure 14 shows the number of outputs from Altmetric Explorer as well as the number of scores that each author has. Out of the 33 PLAAS authors investigated, 16 authors were included in the Altmetric Explorer database and only one of these (Mogaladi) did not have an AAS at all. The highest number of outputs retrieved from Altmetric Explorer was 10 (Hall); of these, nine outputs had an AAS while the tenth was included in the database but had no score.

Figure 14. Authors' numbers of outputs and numbers of outputs with an AAS



The last significant finding in this section is that the document types that were found in Altmetric Explorer were predominantly journal articles (38), followed by five book chapters and three books.

4.3.4.2 Case studies

The results from Altmetric Explorer covered a small percentage of the outputs from PLAAS and did not provide any insight into other document types, as these records covered journal articles, books and book chapters only. This study aimed to look at the impact and visibility of a range of different document types, which necessitated a closer investigation of specific altmetrics that were available for a selection of outputs. Three different publications were therefore analysed at article level. They are presented in this section showing numbers of views and downloads as well as counts of tweets and Facebook shares where available. These indicators are some of the many that make up altmetrics.

The publications were selected because they scored high in views and downloads and therefore were considered worthy of further investigation. The counts of views and downloads were found by using Google Analytics, while the Facebook and Twitter Applications Programme Interfaces (APIs) on the PLAAS publications website were used to count Twitter and Facebook shares.

Table 11 shows the three documents that received the highest number of page views and downloads according to Google Analytics. The highest number of page views was for *Fact Check 1* with 2,711, followed by *Working Paper 21* which had 1,282 views and lastly *Policy Brief 1* had 1,252 views. In terms of downloads, the highest number of downloads was for Working Paper 21, which had 595 while the Policy Brief had the lowest of these three documents at 262 downloads. These were the only publications that were in the top 10 page downloads for the entire PLAAS website.

The policy brief was published in 2001, before social media had developed and this is reflected in the absence of Facebook or Twitter counts in this case. The fact check has six Facebook shares and 63 tweets and the working paper has 52 Facebook shares and 102 tweets as shown in the table.

Table 11. Three PLAAS outputs with altmetrics

| Author | Title | Year | Doc Type | Unique views | Downloads | Twitter | Facebook |
|---------------|--|-------------|-----------------|---------------------|------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Lahiff | Land reform in South Africa: is it meeting the challenge? | 2001 | Policy Brief | 1,252 | 262 | 0 | 0 |
| Walker& Dubb | The distribution of land in South Africa: an overview | 2013 | Fact Check | 2,711 | 494 | 63 | 6 |
| Du Toit | Making sense of 'evidence' - notes on the discursive politics of research and pro-poor policy making | 2012 | Working Paper | 1,282 | 595 | 102 | 51 |

In order to find out more about the context in which these outputs were produced and shared, the authors were emailed and information was gathered from the Communications and Information Officer who was responsible for their production. This will be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter, but some of the key points are given here.

Policy Brief 1, Land reform in South Africa: is it meeting the challenge? was published in 2001 and it was the first time that “the key land reform issues were summarised and solutions offered, in a popular format” (Pointer, personal communication, February 2017). This first brief was originally sent out in printed form by post to a number of policy makers and others. It was uploaded onto the website in approximately 2011 and has been downloaded 262 times since then.

Working Paper 21, Making sense of 'evidence': notes on the discursive politics of research and pro-poor policy making was published in 2012 and was one of the first papers that challenged the evidence-based policy making practice (EBPM). This approach was originally taken in the health sector in the UK and was passed on to countries in the global South that received research funding from DFID and other donors, including South Africa. Shortly after the paper was released, PLAAS held a symposium which looked at EBPM in the South African context and the paper was presented there by Du Toit, which gave it greater coverage. A last contributing factor was that “a champion of the cause”, Enrique Mendizabal, who was himself challenging EBPM doctrine, actively spread word of this paper through Twitter and his blog (Du Toit, personal communication, February 2017). He was an expert in the EBPM field, so when he championed the paper, many people in the field sought it out, contributing to the highest number of downloads at 595.

Fact Check 1, The distribution of land in South Africa: an overview was the first in a series of four concise papers that challenged the many land reform myths that had been circulating regularly, particularly in the media. The series gave current and statistical evidence in the form of infographics regarding land ownership and land reform. At the time that the series was published, a major international conference was held that commemorated the South African 1913 Land Act and the fact checks reached a number of journalists and others at the conference. According to the

PLAAS Communications Officer, these papers were also pushed hard in a social media campaign at the time of publication and they are still being used four years later, with 494 downloads for *Fact Check 1* at the time of writing (Pointer, personal communication, February 2017). There is no replacement yet for these fact checks and “in broad terms *Fact Check 1* remains relevant and helps to complicate simplistic claims” (Walker, personal communication, February 2017).

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Four analysed the data that was gathered for the investigation and presented the findings. This chapter discusses and provides an interpretation of the main findings in the context of the literature reviewed in Chapter Two and the main objective of the study. Based on the discussion, conclusions are drawn and recommendations are made.

The main objective of this study was to produce a bibliographic record of the corpus of PLAAS research over the period 1995-2015 and to describe its impact in the scholarly domain and in society. The chapter is divided into sections according to each of the research sub-objectives which were listed in Chapter One. In summary, the sub-objectives were

- to record the body of all PLAAS research outputs for the period 1995-2015;
- to use bibliometric and altmetric analysis on the scholarly outputs to measure activity and visibility of the researchers at PLAAS; and
- to investigate the impact of the different outputs measured through bibliometrics and/or altmetrics.

5.2 Research outputs for the period 1995-2015

The number of publications produced by an individual, group of researchers or institution is a quantitative measure of research activity and is indicative of the productivity of each category. There are however notable differences across the disciplines, which means that different authors and papers can only be compared within the same discipline (Gorraiz, Wieland & Gumpenberger, 2016). This section discusses outputs firstly by document type and secondly by author.

5.2.1 Document types

The results of this study showed that a total of 743 outputs were produced in this period. The first broad category of scholarly publications numbered 344 and

consisted of journal articles, books and book chapters. The second category that numbered 399 is made up of other documents or outputs (referred to here as grey literature) including policy briefs, videos, research reports and conference papers. The apparent emphasis that PLAAS places on publishing grey literature is directly linked to one of the aims of the Institute which is to engage in policy processes in South Africa. Policy makers and advocacy groups require relevant research to be communicated to them through formats other than scholarly articles or books and PLAAS grey literature is aimed at these audiences.

The graph in Figure 2 (Chapter Four, page 48) shows no dominant trend in the number of outputs per year, apart from a general increase from the low numbers in the first few years (1995-1999) when the Institute was new with few researchers, to the highest number of 83 outputs produced in 2013. Matters of funding, staffing, the stage of a particular research project and publication lags all had an influence on productivity in any given year. Thus, because of these random and uncontrollable effects, no particular conclusions can be drawn about the outputs for any particular year.

5.2.2 Authors

The study investigated 33 scholars who were responsible for authoring or co-authoring 643 outputs over the twenty year period. As is the nature of most organisations which experience staff mobility, researchers had been academic staff members of PLAAS for varying lengths of time. This had an obvious effect on the measure of outputs per author as the count did not include outputs before or after their time at PLAAS. The number of outputs per author ranged from the lowest of one publication to a total of 142 for the researcher with the highest output.

What is noteworthy in the study is that Professor Emeritus Cousins, at the Institute since 1995 as a founding member, is the most prolific author in PLAAS with 142 outputs over that period. Associate Professor Hall and Associate Professor Hara followed this total with 84 and 69 outputs respectively, Hara having joined PLAAS in 2000 and Hall in 2002. Table 4 in Chapter Four (page 52), presents the analysis of document types produced by the top three PLAAS authors, Cousins, Hall and Hara. From the results it is apparent that all the authors produced almost the same quantity

of each kind of output, scholarly and grey literature, the greatest difference was in Hall's outputs which were 44% grey and 56% scholarly.

Lotka's law of author productivity, stating that "for any body of literature, there will be a substantial number of authors who have each contributed only one publication, a small number of authors who have each contributed a small number of publications, and a very small group of authors who have each contributed a substantial number of publications" (Olsgaard, 1989) has been shown to apply in studies such as that of Rotich and Onyancha (2017:26). There is evidence in the patterns of author productivity in the current study that Lotka's law applies. The largest group of 23 authors produced a total of 138 publications (25%), the next group of seven researchers (15 papers or more each) had a total of 210 publications (39%) and the top three authors (Cousins, Hall and Hara) contributed the most publications numbering 295 (46%) in total.

The fact that outputs are not visible in citation indices such as Scopus does not necessarily mean that productivity is not high, as in Hall's case. It is known that Scopus does not include any grey literature in its database. However Hall showed high citation counts for a relatively small number of outputs in Scopus (16) as she was in the top three authors for citations, and also three of the most cited articles were authored by her. It could then be presumed that the indicators for both production counts and citation counts might be considerably higher if more of Hall's publications were scholarly outputs.

A further investigation into the document types that were found in Scopus and GS gave the results as shown in Tables 2 and 3 (Chapter Four, page 50 and 51). What is seen firstly, and within expectations, is that Scopus did not retrieve any of the PLAAS grey literature, while GS provided records for 74 or 19% of 399 grey outputs. In both databases, journal article records had the highest numbers, GS retrieving 139 articles (60%) and Scopus 119 (52%). The study combined Scopus records of reviews, editorials and notes in the category of journal articles. It is not unexpected that journal articles had the highest results because of the high esteem in which the journal article is held in scholarly communication. Both Scopus and GS produced very few results for books and book chapters, and this is known to be a shortcoming

of these citation indices (and WoS) where the journal article is emphasised more than other units of scholarly communication (Kahn, 2011:27; Tran & Aytac, 2016:18).

5.3 Bibliometric analysis

The definition of bibliometric analysis by Pritchard was adopted in this study: “the application of statistical and mathematical methods to books and other media of communication” (Pritchard, 1969:349). The initial purpose of such methods of analysis was to assist the library managing these media with collection development tasks such as subscriptions (Haustein & Lariviere, 2015). Bibliometric analysis has more recently, and particularly since the Science Citation Index was developed, become a tool for the evaluation of researchers and is commonly used to provide indicators of visibility and impact of individual researchers or groups of researchers. Through the use of the citation index, bibliometrics is now easily applied to large numbers of articles to analyse patterns of scholarly communication.

Bibliometrics is a quantitative method of evaluation and it is emphasised throughout the literature that qualitative peer review should be part of an overall evaluation, and citation analysis, even using a number of different metrics, should not be used as the only basis on which decisions like promotion and tenure are made. Gorraiz, Wieland and Gumpenberger (2016), state that “it cannot be stressed often enough that citations are only used as a proxy for the impact (and not for the quality) of the publications in the ‘publish or perish’ community (i.e. the researchers who are committed to publishing their results)”.

5.3.1 Citation analysis by author

Citation analysis is central to bibliometrics and is based on the premise that the number of times that an author is cited implies a measure of use and impact of the publication that is cited. Olsgaard (1989) defined citation analysis as the “practices and patterns of scholarly practices” and the literature shows that citation analysis is broadly accepted as a reliable method of evaluation (Moed & Halevi, 2015:1991; Pouris, 2006). Impact is even viewed as “synonymous with citation-based metrics” (NISO Altmetrics Initiative Working Group A, 2016) and using “volume of impact as a proxy for value (i.e. number of citations or more recently number of online mentions)” (Holmberg, 2015:101) is largely accepted.

Scopus found 18% of the total number of outputs, from which it calculated a citation count. This dataset showed that Hall had the most citations (601) for a total of 16 outputs and Cousins had the second highest number of citations (368), although he had more publications (28). Du Toit, with 16 publications and 337 citations, was in third place.

Onyancha and Ocholla (2009:3) found in their research that GS provided a much larger set of results than either Scopus or WoS. This was similar to the experience in this study as the results in Table 3 (Chapter Four, page 51) show: 535 records were retrieved in GS, or 72% of the total outputs. In these results, Cousins, Hall and Du Toit were identified as the top researchers in terms of productivity and citations, replicating the pattern found in Scopus.

These three researchers have featured in this study for their high metrics overall. Their senior ranking (Professor and SARChI chair, Associate Professor and Professor respectively) in the university hierarchy and extensive periods of time at PLAAS (20, 13 and 20 years) in the Institute are understood to be contributing factors to their high productivity and other metrics in this study. This is consistent with findings in other studies in the literature (Rotich & Onyancha, 2017:29; Gorraiz, Wieland & Gumpenberger, 2016).

The average number of citations per author in Scopus was 62, and from Table 5 in Chapter Four, page 55), it is apparent that eight authors had this number or more while 12 had less than 62. In GS, the average per author was 350 and out of 32 authors in GS results, eight had more than 350 and 24 had less than 350. Significantly, the same five authors in each citation index scored above the average: Cousins, Du Toit, Hall, Hara and Isaacs; three of these also have the highest results for the top number of publications, citations and *h*-indices.

Although this study did not focus on individuals, because a number of the metrics operate at author level, individuals' high scores were highlighted as these significantly raised the overall impact of the Institute's outputs.

5.3.2 Citation counts by year

This particular analysis, as provided in Chapter Four, presented no conclusive findings; it was the only area of analysis where Scopus and GS differed in the trends for citation counts per year.

5.3.3 The most cited articles

The top two articles by the same author were common to both databases. The third highest was however different, which resulted in a total of four articles across both databases for the most cited articles. The two PLAAS authors of these four articles were Cousins and Hall, emphasising again the significance of their research in terms of impact. Hall's articles were all co-authored, as was Cousins's article.

5.3.4 Records in common

Fifteen authors and their 107 publications were found in the records that were in common for Scopus and GS, and the pattern of citations shows similar trends. The authors who had higher citation counts (albeit different numbers) were the same in both databases, and similarly for those authors with lower citation rates.

5.3.5 The *h*-index

The *h*-index is a useful author-level metric intended by Jorge Hirsch (who proposed the formula in 2005) to provide a better indicator for measuring research impact than a citation count on its own. Castillo (2010:783) expressed confidence in the *h*-index, saying that "the *h*-index, at least for now, provides a robust single metric that combines quality and quantity". The calculation takes both the number of publications and the number of citations into account, and is widely used in bibliometrics. It is noted that the *h*-index does not mean much in isolation and needs to be shown in comparison to others in a similar discipline and with a similar career age (Castillo, 2010:783; Hirsch, 2005:752; Gorraiz, Wieland & Gumpenberger, 2016). Castillo found in his study (Castillo, 2010:783), a comparison of *h*-indices from GS and Scopus, that there is a high correlation rate between the two sets of results.

The comparison with similar scholars at UWC shows in Figure 11 (page 69) the *h*-indices of three highly cited academics from the School of Government (SOG) at UWC, Professors May, Tapscott and Ruiters were considered the most suitable

researchers to provide a reasonable comparison to Cousins, Du Toit and Hall, being of similar career age and status.

The *h*-indices of these six researchers for the period 1995-2015 were found in Scopus and in GS. The results showed that Cousins had the highest index in both (32 in GS and 14 in Scopus), slightly more than May. May had the highest score of the three academics from SOG with an *h*-index of 28 in GS and 10 in Scopus. Figure 11 (page 69) shows that Du Toit and Hall in PLAAS both scored higher than Tapscott and Ruiters in SOG. The total score of these three scholars in PLAAS was higher than the total score of the three top scholars in SOG in both GS and Scopus, again having different values.

The *h*-index is not perfect and has shortcomings like most of the indicators in the quantitative method of bibliometrics. It can “oversimplify a researcher’s impact” as Haustein and Larivière (2015) found, and does not always give accurate comparisons between researchers’ impacts. However, given the results from both Scopus and GS, the higher *h*-indices of PLAAS scholars compared to the top researchers in SOG indicates that the productivity and impact of the research from PLAAS is greater than that from SOG.

5.4 Altmetric analysis

Altmetrics is a new form of measurement of scholarly communication and is a result largely of developments in technology that presented new opportunities through the social web. There is no single definition of altmetrics, and still much debate around its meaning (Haustein, Sugimoto & Larivière, 2015; Erdt et al., 2016:1118). Clearly more research and refining is needed in terms of the use and role of these metrics in measuring research impact; nevertheless it is evident in the literature that the “growing importance of this emergent application area of social media for research evaluation” (Erdt et al., 2016:1147) cannot be ignored.

This study looked into altmetrics as a means of measuring the scholarly visibility of a sample of PLAAS-published outputs. Using Altmetric Explorer and other means to find indicators for some of the outputs, the researcher was able to gain a better

understanding of the potential of altmetrics as a means of tracking and also of increasing visibility and impact of PLAAS research outputs.

5.4.1 *Altmetric.com*

An Altmetric search for PLAAS authors did not return a high number of results with 46 out of 743 (6%). This reflects a shortcoming of Altmetric (as a data provider) that was also found in the study that Costas, Zahedi and Wouters (2015:2004) carried out into the possible correlation of citations and altmetrics. The authors concluded that “any altmetric study is limited by the data providers of altmetric information (in this case Altmetric.com)”. It was hoped that some of the grey literature, with altmetrics, would be available in Altmetric but there was no PLAAS-published grey literature in their database. One of the reasons for this low coverage is most certainly the lack of a Digital Object Identifier (DOI) or other unique identifier for many, if not most, of PLAAS outputs. This identifier and others, such as PubMed IDs, arXiv IDs or handles from repositories, have been discussed by a number of authors in their studies. Peters et al. (2015:180) “suggests that the adoption of this permanent identifier increases the online visibility of research data and inclusion in altmetrics tools”, while Araújo et al. (2015:112) notes that the absence of a DOI diminishes the likelihood of outputs “obtaining altmetrics data in the current scenario”. Torres-Salinas, Robinson-Garcia and Jiménez-Contreras, (2016) also emphasise the need to have a DOI when searching for altmetrics on outputs.

Journal articles had an ID from the journal publisher (according to the practice of each journal) but none of the PLAAS-published material did. Some of these outputs were in the UWC Repository and therefore had a handle which can in theory be used as an identifier, but in this case none of these articles was found by Altmetric because there had been no activity, such as in social media, on the article at the time of the search.

Altmetric provides an aggregated score, the AAS which is “derived from an algorithm, and represents a weighted count of all the attention data [we’ve] picked up for that research output” (Carver, 2015). Holmberg (2015:101) is cautious about the use of an aggregated score, as the advantage of altmetrics is the diversity at article level, in contradistinction to an aggregated number. However, a single value is useful

as a first step in evaluating outputs which should then be followed up by studying the details of a particular article. In Table 9 (page 78), showing the AASs for authors found in Altmetric Explorer, it can be seen that the majority of authors had a total score of less than 10. Those that scored higher than 10 were Matose (11), Hara (27) and Hall (99). More meaningful were the notes given in Altmetric alongside the AAS (not shown in Table 5) indicating if the score is in the top 25, 10 or 5 percentiles or whether it is “average”, “above average” or “good”. The highest scoring article by Hall, with an AAS of 59, was in the top 5% of all research outputs scored by Altmetric which indicated an excellent result. However, not all the records had notes indicating the broader context of the score.

The Altmetric information for the articles that were found did nevertheless give a broader and richer understanding of the visibility and impact at article level. Twitter activity by far exceeded any other social media activity in this set of 38 records where there were 120 tweets and only seven Facebook shares in total. It is also possible that the Twitter counts were affected by the fact that PLAAS has a Twitter account and tweeting on research outputs is done through this account. Altmetric information for these records included, where applicable, counts of news outlets (mainstream news), policy sources (such as the Food and Agriculture Organisation documents) and blogs, all of which is potentially useful information for a policy institute such as PLAAS.

Altmetrics are not yet standardised (Haustein, Sugimoto & Larivière, 2015; Sutton, 2014:6; Roemer & Borchardt, 2015:145), which inevitably means there is some difficulty in establishing consistent and comparable indicators as well as categories and definitions. Programmes like Altmetric, PlumX and ImpactStory are still being developed and fine-tuned and consistent use of object and author identifiers will make tracking better and easier. It will take time before these metrics are suitable to use for research impact measurement but they do add an extra dimension that is essential in assessing impact in contexts other than the academic one (Roemer & Borchardt, 2015:145; Sutton, 2014:6).

5.4.2 Case studies

This study aimed to look at the impact and visibility of grey literature as well as traditional scholarly literature and none of the results from Altmetric were grey literature. This necessitated a selection of three publications to be analysed at more granular article level because they scored high in views and downloads and therefore were considered worth further investigation. The counts of views and downloads were found by using Google Analytics, while the Facebook and Twitter Applications Programme Interfaces (APIs) on the PLAAS publications website were used to count Twitter and Facebook shares.

The results of the three specific outputs that were studied revealed two usage metrics (views and downloads) and two social media metrics (Twitter and Facebook). The data showed that these indicators were high in comparison to other PLAAS outputs, with downloads in the hundreds for all of the three selected publications. The policy brief was published before Twitter was available and so did not have tweets recorded. However, the numbers of tweets found for the newer publications were 102 for the working paper and 63 for the fact check. The recorded counts did not include other tweets that referred to these publications but which did not provide a direct link to the URL (often shortened for Twitter, which can create difficulty in tracking) so the actual number of tweets relating to these publications could be considerably higher.

It was apparent that in each of these cases there were substantive reasons for the high altmetrics counts. The high counts were due to either a new way of presenting information to a non-scholarly audience and wide dissemination (as in the policy brief and the fact check) or being championed by a particularly powerful individual (as happened with the working paper) or being publicised at concurrent events and through the mainstream media or social media (this occurred with the working paper and the fact check).

5.5 Questionnaire

Social media emerged alongside Web 2.0 with the means of interacting more directly and more easily on the internet more than before. Social media have grown and had a huge impact on society (Onyancha, 2015:8). Scholars have been wary of using

social media for professional communication (Shehata, Ellis & Foster, 2015:1152), some seeing it rather as a tool for personal use or believing that it is “a distraction and a waste of time” (Dunlop, 2015:89). According to Onyancha (2015:9), scholars have been investigating the use of social media for dissemination, discussion and evaluation of research. Altmetrics is directly linked to social media in the evaluation aspect, as it includes counts and measures of activity on social media platforms, amongst other areas.

The aim of the questionnaire was to assess how much the current PLAAS researchers used or had knowledge of an array of social media. The responses contributed to the research sub-objective relating to altmetrics which is largely dependent on social media. The basic premise is that if researchers used some of the many different social media platforms and networks that benefit their research (in sharing, disseminating and discussing online) then their online presence and, therefore, attention paid to their work, would be high.

Overall, the responses to the questionnaire illustrated that the majority of PLAAS researchers had little knowledge of the various social media platforms and options available which would give them an online research presence. The use of many such platforms and tools was also low. The highest response rate was for Question 5 (shown in Figure 13 page 74) regarding a research profile on the academic networking sites Academia.edu and ResearchGate.net. In this instance, 100% of respondents said that they had a profile on Academia.edu and 86% had one on ResearchGate.net. Tattersall (2016:112) remarks that these two academic networks are the “bigger and more established social networks for researchers” and that Academia is a “huge database that allows users to read and share each other’s research”. Dunlop (2015:88) also found in her study that Academia.edu and ResearchGate.net “stood out as tools that many respondents felt enhanced their research profile”.

Another area in which the PLAAS scholars were active was blogging; 67% responded that they write blogs and this was accounted for partly by referring to the existence of a PLAAS website blog, “Another countryside”, where the researchers write about their research projects or anything else of interest and relevance.

The results, in addition, showed that Twitter (micro-blogging) and LinkedIn (social network) had moderately high responses, 44% and 56% of the respondents used these tools respectively. This reflects what is shown in the literature, notably that Twitter has been shown to be used quite extensively by academics, as a preferred tool for scientific research dissemination and discussion that affords the following:

- communication with a huge network,
- following of events and conferences, and
- personalisation of ones profile and network (Bornmann, 2015:1126; Schnitzler et al., 2016; Tattersall, 2016:115).

According to responses to Question Three of the survey, 88% of respondents used Zotero as a reference management system. This can largely be attributed to the fact that it has been a prerequisite in the last few years for all PLAAS researchers to use this software to maintain a profile of all their outputs in order to make the production of outputs lists more streamlined.

In summary, there was no reported use of individual websites, ORCID's and Wikipedia entries. Either or both of the academic networking sites Academia.edu and ResearchGate.org were used by most or all of the respondents. Approximately half the respondents used Zotero, and more than half wrote blogs; but it can be argued that Zotero and blogs are used because of the encouragement or insistence from the Institute. LinkedIn and Twitter were in use by some of the researchers, fewer on Twitter, possibly because of the existence of the Institute's Twitter account.

Question Five aimed to find out in more detail what respondents thought about social media for research purposes. One respondent noted that social media could greatly benefit the Institute's profile in social /scholarly contexts but that for various reasons researchers are not taking up the opportunity. This comment reflected what Dunlop (2015:87) found in her research on social media amongst UCT researchers which was that social media is not much used for research purposes.

The survey results show that the majority of the researchers do not prioritise the use of social media in their research activities even if they see it as useful and potentially beneficial, and this is consistent with the low coverage of PLAAS outputs by altmetrics.

5.6 Impact of the different outputs measured through bibliometrics and/or altmetrics

The study shows that in the period under review, PLAAS produced a high number of outputs of many different types, not only scholarly journal articles and books but grey literature as well. GS and Scopus are valuable tools for measuring visibility and impact of research outputs but both have limitations. The citations and the comparative *h*-indices from both these sources nevertheless show that there are established researchers in PLAAS with higher than average citation counts and *h*-indices, and that the overall citation count for the Institute was high. This indicates that there has been impact of PLAAS research in the scholarly context for those outputs that are covered in the citation indices.

The altmetrics results were disappointing overall. Only a few journal articles from the Scopus index were covered in the Altmetric results. The visibility and impact of the PLAAS grey literature is largely unknown at this stage. There is data available from Google Analytics and the Twitter and Facebook APIs at article level, but this is scattered and difficult to access. Moreover, other indicators that could contribute to measuring impact are not readily available, such as citations, use by policy documents, and others.

The potential for altmetrics to be beneficial for PLAAS was demonstrated in the three case studies of PLAAS-published material. High numbers of downloads, high twitter counts and some citations and Facebook shares of the particular outputs show this potential. Much of the social media activity can be attributed to the campaigns or events that took place around these publications or by particular individuals using social media platforms such as Twitter extensively to discuss and disseminate the research. The survey confirms that PLAAS researchers themselves do not know about and do not use social media; it was a few individuals, and the Communications Team, that did most of the communication around these three outputs on social media.

5.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, the study shows that, during the period 1995-2015, PLAAS researchers were productive, and that the total PLAAS outputs during this period were divided almost equally into scholarly outputs and grey literature. Visibility and impact in the scholarly domain, relative to others in the Social Sciences discipline at UWC, was high. Although the results of the top three researchers cannot be extrapolated to the rest of the academic staff at PLAAS, in terms of affecting the levels of productivity and impact from the entire Institute, the top authors had a significant and positive effect.

Coverage in GS was better than in Scopus, but the two sets of results were comparable in trends and patterns, if not in the numbers themselves. There is value in using both databases, despite the shortcomings that each has. Scopus coverage is limited because it is focused on the global north and because it does not include grey literature. GS is prone to errors and duplication, and although the coverage is greater, the accuracy is lower than Scopus.

Altmetric was limited in its coverage of PLAAS outputs, largely because those outputs did not have unique identifiers, and activity in social media around them was inconsistent. Where there had been social media activity for specific publications, the altmetric counts increased significantly. This demonstrates that there is potential to enhance PLAAS's impact in the social and policy environment but currently it is both neither highly visible nor seen to be having an impact.

This study illustrates the need to track and measure widely and accurately in order to demonstrate impact. The indicators found for the top authors indicate that their research is highly regarded and used in the scholarly domain, although this is limited by low visibility in Scopus particularly. It is unknown what the real impact in the social context is given the lack of sufficient data from Altmetric and other tools. There is potential for much greater impact through the researchers' use of social media as shown in the three case studies.

5.7.1 Implications of this study and recommendations.

This study has demonstrated that the use of bibliometric and altmetric analysis can yield a rich picture of research output and significance, providing insight into scholarly communication at PLAAS. The application of the research design in other research units and departments at UWC will generate results that are useful to research management at UWC. If the recommended actions are taken, a future study into the altmetrics of grey literature produced at PLAAS would reveal useful information.

In order for PLAAS to improve the visibility and impact of their outputs in scholarly and particularly in social contexts, the following actions are recommended for the Institute and its authors.

- Use DOIs for all publications and ORCIDs for all authors;
- Promote open access publishing by contributing to the UWC Institutional Repository, and by publishing in suitable open access journals;
- Learn about social media and how its use can benefit research activity for the Institute and individual researchers;
- Establish tracking mechanisms and keep and maintain good records of the activity in social media around PLAAS outputs;
- Improve and maintain Google Scholar profiles in order to keep them current and accurate as a source of publication and citation counts.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICS CLEARANCE FROM UCT



Library and Information Studies Centre
University of Cape Town
Upper Campus

Private Bag X1, RONDEBOSCH, 7701 South Africa
Level 6 Ilangoani, The Chancellor Oppenheimer Library
Tel: +27 (0) 21 650 4546
E-mail: lisc@uct.ac.za
Internet: www.lisc.uct.ac.za

UCTLIS201609-06

15 september 2016

Ms Gillian Kerchhoff
Library and Information Studies Centre
University of Cape Town

Dear Ms Gillian Kerchhoff

I am pleased to inform you that ethical clearance has been granted by the Ethics Review Committee of the Library and Information Studies Centre, Faculty of Humanities on behalf of the University of Cape Town for your Master's project entitled: *Exploring the impact of PLAAS outputs 1995-2015 with bibliometrics and altmetrics*

I wish you the very best with your study

Yours sincerely,

Signed

Dr Thomas Matingwina
Chair, Department (LISC) Research Ethics Committee.

APPENDIX B: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY AT UWC



STUDENT
ADMINISTRATION
Administration Building, 1st Floor
ashaikjee@uwc.ac.za, nschoeman@uwc.ac.za
021 959 2110

27 September 2016

Dear Gillian Kerchhoff

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

As per your request, we acknowledge that you have obtained all the necessary permissions and ethics clearances and are welcome to conduct your research as outlined in your proposal and communication with us.

Please note that while we give permission to conduct such research (i.e. interviews and surveys) staff and students at this University are not compelled to participate and may decline to participate should they wish to.

Should you wish to make use of or reference to the University's name, spaces, identity, etc. in any publication/s, you must first furnish the University with a copy of the proposed publication/s so that the University can verify and grant permission for such publication/s to be made publicly available.

Should you require any assistance in conducting your research in regards to access to student contact information please do let us know so that we can facilitate where possible.

Yours sincerely

Signed

DR AHMED SHAIKJEE
MANAGER: STUDENT ADMINISTRATION
OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR

APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESEARCHERS AT PLAAS

This questionnaire is being sent to you as part of my research for a Master's degree in Library and Information Studies in which I focus on measuring scholarly communication and outputs of PLAAS over the last two decades. One of the measurement methods is bibliometrics (which include publication counts, citation counts and citation analysis amongst others). The bibliometric analysis will form the major part of my study which is being supervised by Emeritus Assoc. Prof Mary Nassimbeni of the Library and Information Studies Centre of the University of Cape Town. Altmetrics is another method of measurement that has emerged more recently than bibliometrics with the advances in social media. The dissertation will include a smaller section on altmetrics.

I would therefore like to gather information about your involvement in and exposure to the platforms that allow measurement of this aspect of the reach and visibility of your scholarly communication activity. The data collected from both bibliometrics and altmetrics, will also be available to be used for PLAAS to demonstrate its impact in the scholarly and social contexts.

To assist me in addressing altmetrics questions, please complete the following short questionnaire **7 November 2016**. By filling in this questionnaire you consent to this data being used for my research purposes. All the responses will be anonymised and collected and stored securely.

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey.

Gillian Kerchhoff

Librarian, PLAAS, University of the Western Cape, September 2016

Explanatory notes

Bibliometrics is a quantitative method of measuring the impact of an author's work, or the body of work in a particular field.

A definition of the Altmetrics method is "the study and use of scholarly impact measures based on activity in online tools and environments" (Priem, Groth and Taraborelli (2012). Altmetrics measures - at article level - views, downloads, tweets, blogs and networking as well as providing the option of a specific aggregated score that can be found with service providers such as Altmetric.com, ImpactStory and PlumAnalytics.

Please circle your choice of answer

1. Are you active in your academic capacity in any of the following:

| | | |
|----------------------------|-----|----|
| <i>Twitter</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Blogs</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Facebook</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>LinkedIn</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Google Plus</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Other – please name</i> | | |

2. Do you maintain a personal website?

Yes No

3. Do you use any of the following reference management and sharing software:

| | | |
|----------------------------|-----|----|
| <i>Mendeley</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Zotero</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>CiteULike</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Reddit</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Other – please name</i> | | |

4. Do you have any entries in Wikipedia?

Yes No

5. Do you have a profile that you maintain (and add publications to) in any of the following:

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----|----|
| <i>Google Scholar</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>UWC Institutional Repository</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>ResearchGate.org</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Academia.edu</i> | Yes | No |
| <i>Other – please name</i> | | |

6. Do you have an ORCID (Open Researcher and Contributor) ID? If so, please provide it here (Optional)

Yes No

7. *Do you use any other social media tools for research purposes?*

Yes

No

If you do, please list them

8. *Is there anything else you would like to add to the above?*

Name:

Position at Plaas:

This questionnaire has been adapted from : Gorraiz, J., Wieland, M., Gumpenberger, C., 2016. Individual Bibliometric Assessment @ University of Vienna: From Numbers to Multidimensional Profiles.

Reference: Priem, J., Groth, P. & Taraborelli, D. 2012. The Altmetrics Collection. PLOS ONE. 7(11):e48753. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0048753.

APPENDIX D: BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PLAAS OUTPUTS 1995-2015

| Year | Author | Title | Series Title | Type |
|-------------|--|--|---|------------------|
| 2003 | Ainslie, Andrew; Andrew, Maura; Shackleton, Charles M. | Land use and livelihoods | ELARSA Occasional Paper | Occasional Paper |
| 2006 | Aliber, M. | Assessing the alignment of South Africa's land reform policy to people's aspirations and expectations: A policy-oriented report based on a survey in three provinces | Report for the multi-country OECD study on Measuring Human Rights, Democracy and Governance | Journal Article |
| 2005 | Aliber, M. | Chronic and structural poverty in South Africa: Challenges for action and research | Chronic Poverty Research Centre Working Paper | Working Paper |
| 1999 | Aliber, M. | Experimenting with the commons: a comparative history of the effects of land policy on pastoralism in two former homelands/reserves, Southern Africa. | | Conference Paper |
| 2010 | Aliber, M. | Land in Southern Africa: Key Issues for Farmers and Policy Options | | Journal Article |
| 2005 | Aliber, M. | Land reform and biodiversity conservation in South Africa: complementary or in conflict? | The International Journal of Biodiversity Science and Management | Journal Article |
| 2004 | Aliber, M. | Livelihoods (un)employment and social safety nets: reflections from recent studies in KwaZulu-Natal | | Conference Paper |
| 2013 | Aliber, M. | Should land reform be a permanent feature of the development agenda in Africa? | | Conference Paper |
| 2006 | Aliber, M. | Strategic Questions About Strategic Partners | | Journal Article |
| 2013 | Aliber, M. | Structural Transformation and the Agro-Food System | | Conference Paper |
| 2012 | Aliber, M. | Support for smallholder farmers in South Africa: Challenges of scale and strategy | Development Southern Africa | Journal Article |
| 2013 | Aliber, M. | The BRICS and African Agriculture: South Africa's role | | Conference Paper |
| 2015 | Aliber, M. | The implications of the mobility of South African capital for rural youth in Africa: the case of Zambia sugar | | Conference Paper |
| 2008 | Aliber, M. | The nature of land rights under indigenous law in Africa | | Book Chapter |
| 2015 | Aliber, M. | The rise of tobacco agriculture in Mozambique: questions and challenges for a | | Book Chapter |

| | | | | |
|------|---|--|--|------------------|
| 2002 | Aliber, M. | transforming sector Transfrontier conservation areas: a framework for managing peace and nature in southern Africa? | | Conference Paper |
| 2001 | Aliber, M. | Waking up from the dream: The pitfalls of 'fast-track' development on the Wild Coast of South Africa | | Research Report |
| 2010 | Aliber, M. | Agricultural and land policy | | Book Chapter |
| 2005 | Ally, F. | JAROSZ L 1996. Working in the global food system: a focus for international comparative analysis. Progress in Human Geography 20 (1): 41-55. | Acta academica | Journal Article |
| 2007 | Ally, F. | Market-led agrarian reform: policies, performance and prospects | Third World Quarterly | Journal Article |
| 2003 | Ally, F. | The externalisation and casualisation of farm labour in Western Cape horticulture | Legal Studies | Journal Article |
| 2004 | Anderson, M; Pienaar, K | Multilateral environmental agreements & land and resource rights in Africa | | Policy Brief |
| 2003 | Anderson, M; Pienaar, K | Municipal commonage | ELARSA Occasional Paper | Occasional Paper |
| 2003 | Andrew, Maura; Shackleton, Charlie; Ainslie, Andrew | Land use & rural livelihoods: Have they been enhanced through land reform? | PLAAS Policy brief | Policy Brief |
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